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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the 1986 Southern Conference on Language Teaching on instruction for language proficiency are presented: "The Foreign Language Teacher: Confronting an Ever-Changing Profession" (Robert Di Donato); "Restructuring a Traditional Foreign Language Program for Oral Proficiency" (Filisha Camara-Norman, James Davis, Karen Smyley Wallace); "Brothers Grimm Bicentennial: Blueprint for a Community Celebration" (Sigrid Scholtz Novak); "Florida: State of the Foreign Language Arts" (Gabriel M. Valdes); "Planning and Teaching for Listening Proficiency" (Mary Harris, Jean Jendrzejewski); "Early Foreign Language Reading" (Douglas R. Magrath); "Memory Hooks: Clues for Language Retention" (Leslie Stickels, Marsha Schwartz); "Purpose Produces Proficiency: Writing-Based Projects for an Integrated Curriculum" (Linda S. Evans); "Phonetics, the Basis for all Levels of Proficiency in French Pronunciation" (Dorothy M. DiCrio); "Implications of Brain Hemisphere Research for Second Language Teaching and Learning" (Ernest A. Frechette); and "Listening Skills Development Through Massive Comprehensible Input" (Theodore B. Kalivoda). (MSE)

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PLANNING FOR PROFICIENCY

DIMENSION: LANGUAGE '86

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REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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PLANNING FOR PROFICIENCY

DIMENSION: LANGUAGE '86

Edited by

T. BRUCE FRYER • FRANK W. MEDLEY, JR.

REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Preface

Foreign language methodology in the 1980's has been as dynamic and evolutionary as the languages themselves. Long before sweeping concerns about excellence in education were being addressed in a meaningful way throughout academia, foreign language professionals were aware of the need to find ways to improve the quality of foreign language instruction in order to enhance the communicative competence of their students.

Increased public awareness of the value of foreign language study, highlighted by numerous national studies which have supported the need for and value of second language ability to the student of the twenty-first century, has contributed to a significant increase in public funding to support languages and language-related programs. For the last thirty years numerous trends and methodologies for foreign language instruction have been developed, espoused, implemented, and improved or discarded—all in a never-ending search to find *the method* to produce students with the ability to use a foreign language in meaningful ways and to understand other cultures. It is this search which has provided the catalyst for recent methodological innovations and increased demand for accountability at all levels of instruction.

Since the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies was published in 1979, the pervasive "catch-word" of the foreign language profession has become **proficiency.** The value of this new focus is that it has in significant measure enabled foreign language professionals to address two issues simultaneously—ways of developing greater communicative ability and understanding of other cultures and ways to provide acceptable and verifiable accountability for the instruction offered.

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching, like other major conferences in foreign language education in the United States has devoted significant energies in its annual conferences in the 80's to providing foreign language educators both with strategies for implementing proficiency-based instruction and with source information on the most recent trends and developments in the area. The 1986 conference, held in Orlando, Florida, in conjunction with the Florida Foreign Language Association, provided over sixty sessions and workshops focusing on the theme **"Planning for Proficiency."**

Robert Di Donato of The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, keynote speaker for the First General Session, emphasized that foreign language teachers and curricula have received perhaps more scrutiny and criticism than any other academic discipline in recent history. This, together with the ongoing need to respond to ever-changing professional demands and incorporate a wide variety of teaching strategies into meaningful and successful classroom applications, has caused many teachers to feel increasingly insecure and uncertain.

The eclectic methodology with which foreign language teachers must cope provides both hazards and opportunities. Numerous outstanding sessions were presented at the Orlando conference by classroom teachers who have developed exciting techniques and activities for implementing proficiency-oriented, competency-based, purposeful communication into the curriculum. Di Donato and other presenters encouraged teachers to recognize and applaud their own achievements and successes and those of colleagues in managing the demands of this proficiency-based instruction.

Through the efforts of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and others who have worked tirelessly since the early 80's to develop assessment devices for oral proficiency, oral proficiency guidelines have been prepared, and a procedure for administering an Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) has been established. Foreign language educators are becoming more aware of the advantages of using the OPI and of the value of relating it to classroom instruction and program accountability.

Attention is now turning more deliberately to proficiency assessments for the other skills. In his presentation entitled "The Power of Reading and the Power of Writing," Stephen D. Krashen of the University of Southern California, keynote speaker for the Second General Session, spoke eloquently on the need for the foreign language profession to address development of the reading and writing skills.

Citing statistics from many different research projects over the past fifty years, Krashen built a strong case in support of the value of reading for language development. He elaborated upon several factors that can be beneficial in overall development of functional ability, including sustained silent reading as an in-class activity, and self-selected reading, in which students are encouraged to read what they want to read. In addition, he reported that the availability of books and magazines at home correlates highly with the subsequent ability of the

child to read well. Similarly, children who are read to at an early age become better readers as they grow older.

Professor Krashen linked reading to writing and reported on research conducted at the University of Southern California in which it was determined that those students who said they had read a lot at home were also the better writers. Drawing together the results of a number of studies carried out at several institutions, he suggested that the key ingredient in reading improvement appears to be the act of reading itself, not completion of the drills and exercises that accompany the selections. In Krashen's estimation, if schools want to produce good readers and writers, then students must be provided with good books, and given time to read them.

The articles included in this volume of *Dimension* are representative of the variety of presentations from the 1986 conference. They provide a significant contribution to the body of knowledge generated by foreign language professionals in responding to increasing demands for higher standards in education for American students and for citizens who can communicate in other languages.

Sincere thanks are extended to T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr., of the University of South Carolina for their tireless duty in serving as editors for *Dimension*, to James S. Gates, Executive Secretary of SCOLT, and to Francis J. Dannerbeck, Chairman of the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the University of South Carolina, who provided the financial support for the design and production of the cover graphics and printing.

Rosalie M. Cheatham
Program Chairperson

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1
The Foreign Language Teacher: Confronting an Ever-Changing Profession[1]

Robert Di Donato
Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Introduction

The rapid changes occurring in the foreign language teaching profession in recent years have caught many teachers by surprise. On the one hand, they welcome the new methods, techniques and approaches which are proliferating at an ever-increasing rate. On the other, they feel somewhat trapped between "doing things the old way" and the constant urgings of the profession to enhance and update their teaching methods. Existing programs and materials are continually being reviewed, analyzed and updated. Constant attempts are made to keep teachers abreast of current issues and trends as well as to acquaint them with the most recent theories in FL teaching and introduce them to new strategies. Today FL teachers are faced with many new approaches and recommendations which they must weigh, consider and possibly implement.[2] Confronted with the adoption of state syllabi, matters of professionalization and new directions in their field, the question is often heard: how is the FL teacher to cope with the ever-changing state of the profession? This discussion will address a number of key issues of concern to FL teachers today and will present some practical suggestions for dealing with them.

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[1]This is an adaptation of a keynote address given at the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) in November, 1986.

[2]Both the Carnegie and Holmes Reports call for substantial change in teacher education. See: *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*. Report of the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession. New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1986, and *Tomorrow's Teachers*. Report of the Holmes Group. East Lansing, 1986.

FL Teachers: Committed and Involved

A closer look at teachers' efforts to keep abreast of the FL teaching profession reveals that they are indeed active and involved. They are eager to improve their own training and performance through attendance at in-service workshops, seminars and conferences as well as through professional journals and other aids. They are implementing new ideas and techniques acquired through various sources and are sharing them. The renewed interest in foreign languages nationwide and the increase in enrollments is further evidence that teachers are motivating students to pursue FL study. Teachers are actively involved in image-building for foreign languages.

In terms of public relations, FL teachers are reaching out to their communities to instill in them an awareness of the importance of foreign languages in our interdependent world. They are engaging themselves politically in the cause of foreign languages by forming task forces on a local level to assess teachers' needs and are developing strategies to meet those needs. Together with their students, teachers are conducting a variety of projects designed to appeal to community interest.

The Challenge of Teaching

In the past several years the teaching profession has again become the object of intense scrutiny. This is not unusual, to say the least. A thorough analysis and evaluation followed by suggestions for reshaping and restructuring teacher education inevitably ensues. For a brief period of time, critics assail students' basic skills, their test scores, the way teachers conduct their classes, the issue of student motivation and a host of other questions. Problem-solving groups put their collective minds to work to formulate solutions to what is commonly referred to as the catastrophic state of teaching and the classroom in general. Their solutions are generally short-lived, due in part to the attempt at fixing with a band-aid what needs deep structural change and sweeping reform. Rather than considering the broader aspect of the role of foreign languages in American society, critics focus only on FL instruction in the schools. As a result, some change does occur, and this change is not necessarily negative. It reflects a process of constant analysis and evaluation. Even though input is sought to a certain extent from FL professionals, what remains problematic in such assessments is

that they are imposed from the outside. While such studies eventually produce some positive results, they often carry with them a demoralizing influence on teachers. FL educators feel that critics of the system are on the attack and they must mobilize and react in some way. The teaching profession is probably one of, if not *the* most studied, evaluated, analyzed, scrutinized and criticized endeavors on earth. But in spite of the criticism, FL teachers survive, they persist, they are strengthened.

The day-to-day challenge of teaching forces the FL educator to face a number of obstacles both in and outside the classroom: varying degrees of support for foreign languages by administrators at all levels, general lack of support for the humanities across the country, including parents who fail to recognize the importance of these subject areas for their children, the obsession with making "big bucks" in which the humanities seem to have little or no place, dealing with bureaucratic hassles on a continual basis, and the routine of teaching the same courses over and over year after year in the same way. Add to these influences the new impulses in FL education today with all their accompanying change and upheaval, and it is easy to understand why teachers sometimes lose sight of the goals they once espoused. The move away from grammar-driven language instruction and the push toward proficiency-oriented FL teaching and learning, which has sought to "focus" what is now going on in the classroom and direct it along more communicatives lines, have also put greater demands on both teachers and students. Classroom time is devoted much more to student talk rather than teacher talk with the instructor serving as a model and facilitator, maintaining the language-learning environment for the students. The student, too, is gaining a greater degree of self-sufficiency as a learner. Although this scenario cannot be designated as a reversal of the traditional teacher-student role, it can be viewed as a balancing of the two, with students accepting more and more of the responsibility for their own learning. Since more teachers are now using pair and group work, are involving students with more authentic texts and other materials and are integrating video and computer technology to a greater degree, the FL learning environment has indeed changed. And this change has brought about some insecurity on the part of FL teachers.

In recent years this feeling of insecurity has become somewhat intensified due in part to the growing emphasis on student motivation. It is assumed that if teachers perform well in the classroom, their students will automatically follow suit. We know, however, that it is not the simple introduction of new methods and techniques that motivates

students to, first of all, study foreign language, and then to work harder and achieve greater proficiency. In the same way, it is not simply the introduction of new methods, approaches, and techniques that motivates teachers to teach better, become more expert in their subject areas, and, in general, improve their skills. The plethora of methods, techniques, and approaches that has flooded the market since the late 1950's when interest in foreign languages spiraled has, in a sense, produced mixed results. On the one hand, they have led to better-planned teaching and learning methods. On the other hand, they have created in teachers a sense of insecurity with regard to their instructional techniques because they call into question what educators have been doing in the classroom. The insecurity that results, however, cannot always be seen in a negative light. In fact, it is often insecurity that prompts teachers to seek new avenues in methodology, to refine their approaches, and to implement, on as large a scale as possible, that which effectively produces results.

Clinging to approaches and strategies which have been in use year after year will not combat their insecurity. In order to do so, teachers must develop within themselves a mechanism which will guide them through the various pedagogical innovations and enable them to choose what is appropriate for their instructional situation. This process begins at the very basic level of the textbook and course syllabus and proceeds throughout the curriculum. Rather than looking outside themselves for this guide in the form of mandates or semi-mandates from the state, the profession or the school district, teachers can look within themselves, trust their knowledge, background and training, and, with the help of the state, the profession, and the school district, arrive at guidelines, curriculum, and teaching strategies which are meaningful for their particular situation. Attempts to standardize the teaching and learning of foreign languages have, in a sense, removed this responsibility from teachers. They sometimes feel that they must adhere to a set of dictates and guidelines and can exercise little or no control over curricular structure and organization. Their lament is no longer: "I have to finish the book." It is now: "It's in the syllabus and I have to cover it." Caught in the squeeze between the expectations of the state or school district and the array of approaches and techniques advanced by the profession, they sometimes function in substitution-drill fashion, trying to complete the sentence: "..... will motivate my students," and completing the statement with: The Communicative Approach, Suggestopedia, The Natural Approach, TPR, etc. The seemingly overwhelming number of choices provided by the profession can have a

discouraging effect on teachers. Accustomed to their own style and instructional mode, they are often uncertain as to how to adapt suggestions and recommendations to suit their purposes. Rather than enriching teacher creativity, the wide array of choices can have the opposite effect: teachers become disillusioned because they feel they are unable to keep up with the profession. It is time for FL teachers to develop a new attitude toward their own instruction and the profession in general, one that will enable them to maintain their own style and sense of self, and, at the same time, enhance their teaching by utilizing the results of research in the most effective way possible.

A New Attitude and New Directions:

Teachers tend to look upon teaching as an exact science, primarily because it involves so much responsibility and accountability. They attempt to measure teacher effectiveness in terms which are as specific as possible. But in the thousands of studies done on this topic, none has been able to isolate and define the elusive variable of teacher personality. When the main character in a Broadway show was asked the question: "What is reality anyway?" she replied, "Nothing but a collective hunch." Teachers often pose the question: "What makes a good FL class anyway?" For many the answer might be: "Nothing but a collective hunch."[3] If learning a language involves making mistakes and learning from them, then teaching one certainly must involve similar processes. Much of what teachers do in the classroom is based on hunches. However, these "inspirations" do not grow out of thin air. They are rooted in years of experience, in drawing analogies for other disciplines and in learning from other sources. When developing curriculum as well as individual lessons, teachers do indeed incorporate the practical results of research studies and experiments into their instruction, but they should also not neglect hunches and intuition in their planning. Ideally, a combination of the two in formulating methods and practices should yield the best results.

Developing a new attitude toward our profession implies a step-by-step rethinking of what we as FL teachers do in the classroom. To avoid being overwhelmed by new directions in the field, teachers must

[3]The Broadway show referred to here is "The Search for Intelligent Signs of Life in the Universe."

first analyze their own teaching situation, assess what needs to be changed and then decide on a plan of action as to how to modify it. Teachers are not expected to simply discard approaches they have been using up to now, but may be called upon to implement new ideas and techniques which are designed to achieve curricular objectives and which can readily be integrated into their own teaching philosophies. Innovative approaches will be of little use to teachers who have not fully pondered the implications of such ideas for their own instructional setting. To illustrate their point, let us consider three important directions in FL teaching today: increased attention to functional use of language, a rethinking of the role of grammar and the integration of authentic materials into classroom instruction.

Motivational studies and student opinion polls indicate that most students study a foreign language because they want to be able to speak it, it is imperative that students learn how to communicate. Functional use of the language means that the learner will be able to use it in a variety of contexts and situations. It implies that the student will not only acquire vocabulary and grammar, but also socio-linguistic discourse and strategic competence in the language. If students understand the purpose for which language is used, they will be better able to focus their linguistic competence to achieve that purpose. Some of the purposes or functions of language, as they are called, include inviting someone to do something, recommending a course of action to a person and accepting or rejecting a suggestion. The vocabulary, grammar, cultural knowledge and interactive competence the student has acquired are all components which contribute to the expression of these language functions. With respect to the FL curriculum, teachers must first decide which language functions are most important for their students and then incorporate them in various contexts and situations with appropriate cultural references into their planning.[4] Functional knowledge of the language constitutes only one of several goals of language instruction. Factors such as aesthetic appreciation of language *per se* or cultural competence in the language should not be neglected.

[4]In a study at Purdue University Linda Harlow et al. surveyed students in French classes to determine notions to be studied in a course and the functions within these notions they considered most important. Linda L. Harlow, W. Flint Smith, and Alan Garfinkel, "Student-Perceived Communication Needs: Infrastructure of the Functional Notional Syllabus," *Foreign Language Annals* 13 (1980).

Increased emphasis on functional use of language automatically implies a rethinking of traditional approaches to grammar. Rather than making grammar the focus of instruction, as is done in a linear approach to grammar instruction, teachers should emphasize real communication in the language. Grammar thus becomes a support for communication rather than an end in itself. An example for the first week of a beginning German class will serve as an illustration. By that point students will have been introduced to several forms of the present tense of the verb "sein" (to be) and a number of useful cognates or loan words, mostly adjectives: "optimistisch" (optimistic), "tolerant" (tolerant) and "intelligent" (intelligent). They will also have become acquainted with one another to a degree and can be asked to pay one another a compliment in German. Using the second person singular and "sein" and the adjectives, students might compliment one another in the following manner: "Du bist optimistisch" (You are optimistic), "Du bist tolerant" (You are tolerant). These utterances can also be descriptive statements about the individuals and thus fulfill another language function, that of describing people. It should be noted that even though the present tense of the verb "to be" is required for this simple activity, only the familiar singular form of address is expressed. The other forms of the verb can be postponed for a future lesson.

Galloway recommends considering stages of acquisition when rethinking the presentation of grammar:[5]

> Receptive control—learners can recognize the structure but are not necessarily able to produce it;
> Partial control—learners can use the structure to a limited degree;
> Full control—learners have facility with the structure in a variety of contexts

Such an approach to grammar also requires that teachers rethink the sequencing of textbook materials. The language functions they choose to emphasize will involve different elements of grammar and will require teaching these grammatical structures in non-linear fashion. With regard

[5]Vicki Galloway, "From Defining to Developing Proficiency: A Look at the Decisions," in Heidi Byrnes and Michael Canale eds., *Defining and Developing Proficiency*. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co., 1986, p. 59.

to the grammar items themselves, teachers should consider three questions:[6]

> Do I need to teach the entire structure?
> Can I postpone parts of it to a later date?
> Is the structure a high-frequency item?

This type of approach toward grammar will help to streamline students' acquisition of structures and avoid overwhelming them now with structures they might only need at some time in the future.

A third important feature of FL instruction today is the increased use of authentic materials. For years teachers have incorporated realia from the target country into their classes, often relying on such materials as illustrations or examples of cultural references made in the textbook. Whether or not these realia have been used to their fullest potential in the instructional process has been left up to the individual teacher. Whereas in the past authentic materials have been edited for classroom use, the trend now is to use such materials in their unaltered state. Omaggio, for example, recommends providing "...enough extralinguistic cues to render unedited authentic materials comprehensible to the student at the Novice or Intermediate level" and further suggests some guidelines for teachers in preparing unedited authentic materials.[7] Besides providing some assistance for students when dealing with materials beyond their competence, teachers can structure exercises and develop activities which only require students to demonstrate comprehension of particular features. One of the major advantages of incorporating authentic materials into language instruction lies in the fact that they are replete with cultural implications. They present information about the target country embedded in a cultural context. Both the information and the context can be exploited by the language learner. The German telephone book provides an excellent illustration of this principle. Students may use the phone book to practice numbers in role-play situations. At the same time, they become acquainted with its many uses, which include obtaining information on train schedules, sports, weather, recipes,

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[6]Adapted from Galloway, p. 61.

[7]Omaggio, Alice, "The Proficiency-Oriented Classroom," in Theodore V. Higgs, ed. *Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing Principle*. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co., 1985, p. 72.

theater and concert offerings, the time, etc. The German telephone book also includes such information as occupations of the persons listed.[8]

Authentic materials in the form of readings, cassettes and videos can form the core of the lesson or can be used to supplement the topic under study. They provide an excellent opportunity for students to gain a variety of perspectives on various themes. For example, if students are learning about the role of television in the Federal Republic of Germany, the teacher might choose to supplement the unit with the following materials: a page from the TV guide (available in most major magazines such as "Der Spiegel"), an interview, either in written form or on cassette, with several individuals regarding their TV watching habits, and perhaps a short selection of programming on video. One suggestion might be to edit a number of television programs for viewing in the language lab, concentrating on such items as news reports, commercials, interviews, a "Krimi" (detective story) and a variety show. A three-to five-minute segment from each would give students the flavor of an evening of television viewing in the Federal Republic. Each of these materials may, of course, be incorporated independently from the textbook and the teacher can design exercises and activities to accompany them. When used in conjunction with the textbook, however, they can give students further insights into the topic and can eventually form the basis for homework activities or class projects. Depending on availability of materials, authentic realia can be integrated into the FL class in a variety of formats based on student interest, curricular goals and teachers' creative energies.

Conclusion

Teachers are eager to implement innovative ideas and techniques in their FL classes. Upon returning from conferences and in-service sessions, they are invigorated by what they have experienced and learned. Professional literature on teaching methodology abounds with suggestions to help them improve their teaching. Choosing what is appropriate for their instructional setting requires that teachers adopt an attitude of reflection toward their own teaching, toward the ever-

[8]For a further discussion of use of the telephone book in language instruction, see: John F. Lalande II, "Making a Connection: Telephone Books, Culture and Language Instruction," *Unterrichtspraxis* 2 (1985).

increasing number of new techniques and approaches and toward the FL profession as a whole. They must rely on their own training and informed judgment in their endeavor. This idea is not radically new. It was brought forth during the 1970's, culminating in a special issue of *Foreign Language Annals* on FL Teacher Education.[9] For teachers part of this new attitude will manifest itself in renewed self assurance and greater confidence in their ability to assess and evaluate developments in the profession which affect them. On a personal and professional level this attitude will be demonstrated in a greater awareness of teachers' individual roles and contributions to teaching. In the FL class it will be evident in their renewed interest in and creative attitude toward curriculum, course content, lesson planning and course structure. It will spill over into instructional practices such as communicative activities, listening experiences, approaches to grammar, reading and writing strategies, classroom grouping techniques, testing formats and grading. Through this new attitude teachers will listen and read, they will be informed by the profession, they will analyze their own teaching circumstances, and they will adapt and modify approaches and techniques to suit their needs and those of their students. But above all, they will rely on themselves, on their expertise and training. They will assume control in managing and directing their students' learning. Will they make mistakes? Of course, they will! But the percent of error transfer will be minimal and the risk will be worth it.

[9]See the issue on "Teacher Education and Supervision," *Foreign Language Annals*, 1977.

2
Restructuring a Traditional Foreign Language Program For Oral Proficiency

Filisha Camara-Norman, James Davis, and Karen Smyley Wallace
Howard University, Washington, DC

Howard University is a comprehensive university offering basic instruction in French, German, Italian, Russian, Portuguese, Spanish, and several African languages. The French and Spanish basic language programs are the largest. Each semester, the Department of Romance Languages serves approximately two thousand students in multi-sectioned elementary and intermediate courses in these two languages.

Like many other foreign language departments, the Department of Romance Languages at Howard has traditionally used grammar-based syllabi to define the basic language courses. Until about two years ago, this seemed to be the easiest way to plan and coordinate instruction in the multi-sectioned courses in spite of the obvious shortcomings of such planning. More recently, however, students and teachers have been disillusioned with the traditional, grammar-oriented approach to language learning because it has led to little functional speaking ability. This paper outlines the steps implemented to restructure the program at Howard for more oral proficiency and describes the modification of syllabi, classroom activities, and testing.

The immediate goals of the restructuring process have been to train students to be able to use the language both in and out of the classroom; to perform adequately in real-life situations; and to instill a sense of language confidence and real language competency. Following the ACTFL/ETS guidelines for oral proficiency, goals were modified to reflect 1) what the student *can* do (function), 2) the essential vocabulary for various subjects and themes (content), and 3) the quality and precision of the language (accuracy).

The coordinators of the French and Spanish language programs and the Director of Undergraduate Studies began by conducting a thorough assessment of the program during the spring semester of 1985. At that time, the course syllabi and the schedule of class activities stated all objectives in terms of the grammar to be taught week by week (i.e., Week One—Definite Articles; Week Two—Indefinite Articles, etc."). The first step in restructuring the program was to revise the syllabi and descriptions of activities for each level in order to make them guides or invitations to language learning which reflected positive encouragement, and which stimulated new interest in the language. For example, the revised description of activities for the second week of a Level I French or Spanish class states:

> You will learn the names of the days and months and numbers from 1 to 10. You will also learn to give brief information about yourself and to identify objects in the classroom. In addition, you will learn to ask and answer questions.

Students now are told what they will be able to accomplish and when. Yet, because the presentation of grammar and structure is still an integral part of the program, at the end of the description of performance goals for each week, students are given specific references in the textbook for grammar study.

The success of the restructuring project has required the cooperation and support of all teachers, especially those involved with the elementary and intermediate level courses, and it has been necessary to conduct at least one workshop in order to familiarize colleagues with the goals and techniques of teaching and testing for oral proficiency. Faculty members have also been encouraged to participate in other proficiency workshops such as those sponsored by ACTFL, and several instructors have participated in the ACTFL/ETS tester training workshops held at Pennsylvania State University in 1985 and 1986.

After the familiarization process, the next step in the restructuring project was to insure that proficiency-based materials and activities would become major components in the classroom. The same textbook (*Invitation,* 2nd ed., in French and *Dicho y Hecho,* in Spanish) is used for three consecutive semesters in the Levels I, II, and III courses in both French and Spanish. As a result, teachers have more time to teach for proficiency and to incorporate communicative activities in their

classes, and students have more time to improve their aural/oral skills while studying the essential structures of the language.

At the beginning of the semester, instructors at each level give a diagnostic review. Students in Level II French and Spanish classes, for example, receive a weekly class schedule which states that during the first two weeks of class they will refresh their memory of things learned in Level I by preparing good oral and written responses to a series of twenty questions. The questions are grouped so as to elicit meaningful and interesting responses from each student, and focus on vocabulary and structures which are important for functional ability in the language. Students are asked to give their name, age, and birthdate and should be able to tell where they grew up and where they live now. They should tell if they have a roommate and should describe their room and list some of their possessions. Students' descriptions of their likes and dislikes, their leisure-time activities, what they did and where they went last weekend, and what they are going to do next weekend are excellent indicators to help the teacher assess their mastery of everyday vocabulary and basic structures.

The diagnostic review for students in the Level III classes requires them to answer some of the same questions as the Level II students but includes other questions which are more challenging since they review the structures taught in Level II. Students are asked to describe what their life was like when they were children, where they grew up, what their favorite pastimes were, where they would go on vacation, what they used to do during vacation, what they wanted to become, and what their favorite classes were in school. Basic vocabulary and structures are reviewed as students tell what time they got up the previous morning, what time they went to bed the night before. As they describe their usual morning routine, they are to use as many reflexive verbs as possible. They also tell what they did last weekend, in as much detail as possible, and what they intend to do next weekend.

The diagnostic review is especially critical at the beginning of Levels II and III. It allows the teacher and the students to get acquainted, but more importantly, the teacher is able to diagnose and respond to individual learner needs. In order to structure a more effective learning environment, teachers use the results of the diagnostic review to include numerous class activities in which students are strategically assigned to small groups, according to their strengths and weaknesses, and where they will have more opportunities to speak the

target language. These activities are vital to the success of an oral proficiency-oriented approach to teaching and are ideal in giving all the students a chance to speak, especially when instructors have large classes.

In each lesson, instructors stress the acquisition and enrichment of vocabulary, in context, to allow students to express things which are true about themselves. All of the grammar which is taught on the elementary and intermediate levels, traditionally, continues to be taught. However, since the focus is on oral communication, teachers constantly review and emphasize the use of certain structures which are crucial to functional ability in the language: the present tense, the future immediate (to be going to do something), the past tenses.

With the increased emphasis on improving listening skills, students in the Levels I and II courses attend the language laboratory for regularly scheduled fifty-minute sessions twice a week. They use the lab manuals which accompany the *Dicho y Hecho* and *Invitation* textbooks and listen to recorded materials which are based on their textbooks. They practice pronunciation and do structure and transformation drills, but more importantly, they do exercises designed to increase listening comprehension. Several instructors arrange for videotapes to be shown during some of the language laboratory sessions as a means of providing excellent visual and oral reinforcement and enrichment. Video materials commonly used in the elementary and intermediate classes include *Learn French the BBC Way 1 and 2* and the *Zarabanda* series (Spanish).

In addition to their required laboratory sessions, students are strongly encouraged to attend the "free-listening laboratory" for additional individual practice as often as they wish. They may listen to course materials or supplementary materials preselected by their instructors (poems, songs, and tapes of conversations and interviews with native speakers) and made available for use in the "free-listening lab" during a given period. Students who desire to practice the language at home are encouraged to bring in blank cassettes and/or tape recorders in order to tape various materials. Practice at home is especially valuable for the Level III students since they go to class only three days a week and do not have scheduled lab sessions.

Students really enjoy talking about themselves and listening to their classmates talk about themselves. Instructors provide increased opportunities for them to speak in situations modeled after real-life contexts. As new vocabulary and structures are presented and practiced in class, instructors monitor the students and stress correct pronun-

ciation. Next, students are assigned short talks on specific themes related to survival and social skills which they prepare at home and then present in class. In Level I classes, for example, after only a few weeks of instruction, students are able to give a short talk in which they introduce themselves to their classmates in the target language. They tell where they live, name some of the objects they possess, comment on how they like the courses at the university, tell what days they have class and how many classes they have, tell their likes and dislikes, and describe their personality. As the semester progresses, they present other talks in which they plan a dream vacation or describe their family, for example. The emphasis on speaking is reinforced in the Level II and III classes as students present similar talks on topics presented in their textbooks.

An instructional activity which students find very motivating involves role playing. They enjoy the game-like atmosphere which results when one or two classmates act out situations which have been typed in English on index cards and given to students for impromptu role playing. Below are a few examples:

1. Imagine that you are in a small restaurant in Paris. You want to order a meal. (Level I)
2. You are being interrogated by the police in a foreign country. They want to know everything you did yesterday. Tell them, in detail, how you spent the day. (Level II)
3. You have been asked to advise some new foreign exchange students on how to do well in their studies at Howard. Tell what advice you will give them. (Level III)

As a result of such constant and meaningful speaking practice, students find it easier to speak, speak more, and show an increased desire and ability to "create" with the language.

Although the activities described above are time-consuming, teachers find that they provide a most effective means of systematic evaluation of students' progress in mastering oral skills and help to put more balance in evaluating what the students are able to do. As a result of the restructuring process, the prior emphasis on writing/grammar and reading in the basic language program at Howard University has been replaced with a fifty-fifty balance between the oral and written skills.

The key to successful proficiency-oriented teaching is to keep the ACTFL descriptors in mind when designing instructional activities. In the elementary-level courses, instructors are reminded that in spite of the many grammatical structures that may be taught during the term, students have a real desire to talk about themselves and should be encouraged to do so. Instructors at all levels seek innovative ways to have students practice speaking in situations which lead to and reinforce mastery of the vocabulary and structures of the "Novice" level subject areas: basic objects, body parts, colors, clothing, the day's date (weekdays, months, year), family members, foods, numbers, times, and weather. However, even at this level, opportunities are provided for students to begin to demonstrate "Intermediate" level behavior and as the necessary vocabulary and structures are presented, students participate in situations requiring them to narrate and describe in past and future time.

In the Level III and IV courses, instructors guide their students to be able to perform the linguistic tasks of the Intermediate Level of the ACTFL/ETS proficiency rating scale. More stress is placed on helping the students to create with the language, answer questions, ask questions, fulfill minimum courtesy requirements, handle routine travel needs, and get into, through, and out of simple survival situations. At this level, instructors seek ways to encourage students to move beyond talking almost exclusively about personal welfare (own background, family, interests, recreational activities, work, travel)—as they did on the elementary level—to talk about other people, familiar places, and current events.

Each instructor in the basic language program is encouraged to build a personal library of materials for listening practice as well as visual aids designed to stimulate conversation. They try to provide realistic contexts which will elicit the recall and use of the vocabulary and structures necessary for functional ability in the language. On the elementary levels, these materials are used largely for description but once the past tenses have been introduced, they provide excellent stimuli for description and narration. Items which are effective stimuli to speaking in the target language include slides, magazine pictures, photographs and illustrations from textbooks, and authentic materials from the target culture: telephone books, advertisements with symbols, travel brochures, train schedules, hotel registration forms, and menus from restaurants.

Instructors find that the instructional activities described above are extremely stimulating and are excellent confidence builders for their

students. As the activities are modified and the practice situations are made more complicated from time to time, they represent challenges which the more capable students find quite motivating.

One of the most important steps in the curriculum development project is the development and administering of valid and effective tests. The basic premise is that a proficiency-based program must make use of proficiency-based testing. Formative test preparation and testing throughout the semester is left up to individual instructors. Departmental midterm and final examinations are prepared by several faculty members who teach sections of a particular course. Prior to the effort to restructure the basic language program, these departmental examinations were, for the most part, discrete-point item tests which measured knowledge of grammatical structures, vocabulary, and cultural information. Currently, a mandatory oral-proficiency interview has been instituted as a part of the departmental midterm and final examinations in Levels I, II, and III. The interview is based on the guidelines and strategies of the ACTFL/ETS oral interview, but because they are approximately twenty-five students in each class, it was necessary to shorten the interview to no more than ten minutes. Instructors are given a two-week period at midterm and at the end of the semester in order to set up appointments with each student during office hours.

When the student comes for the interview, first the teacher/interviewer greets the student and has a short warm-up period designed to put the student at ease. Another purpose served by this warm-up period on all levels is to allow students to demonstrate their ability to function at the Novice level (greetings, etc.). Next the teacher asks a series of questions which measure the student's acquisition of the communicative skills which have been taught up to that pont. Before the interview ends, the teacher allows the student to ask questions and/or to role play in a situation described on a three-by-five index card.

In one example of this technique an authentic menu from a French or Spanish restaurant in the Washington, DC, area is used to test the student's ability to "order a meal." The student is given a copy of the menu, and the teacher plays the role of a waiter/waitress. The teacher asks a series of questions which will allow the student to use the appropriate vocabulary and structures necessary to carry out the particular task. This technique may be used for testing speaking at various levels. At the novice level, the teacher may simply want to test control of verbs in the present tense and the use of specific vocabulary for foods. At the intermediate or advanced level, however, the teacher

could complicate the situation by saying, for example, that a particular item that the student ordered from the menu is unavailable, or by suggesting that the student try something other than what was ordered. In brief, there are a variety of methods of getting the student to demonstrate the ability to use the language function being tested.

The following system has proven quite adaptable for evaluating the results of speaking tests at Howard. Pronunciation, vocabulary, structures, and fluency (ease of speech) are assigned a value on a four-point scale. Four points in a given category mean that the student has performed at the maximum expected level and would be translated as an "A" for that particular skill. Three points are given if the student performs well but not at the maximum expected level, and would correspond to a grade of "B" for the particular skill. Two points indicate average performance, and one point is given for below average but minimally acceptable performance. If students are required to ask questions in an interview situation, for example, this would constitute an additional category to be evaluated similarly. Students who can ask several questions using the appropriate vocabulary and structures would receive four points or "A," and students who are not able to ask any questions receive no points for that category. The total grade for the speaking test would be an average of the points in all categories.

As a follow-up to the listening activities in the laboratory and in class, students are given quizzes and tests throughout the semester designed specifically to measure listening comprehension skills. More importantly, the departmental midterm and final examinations test listening comprehension separately as a vital communicative skill in life-like situations. Students are given aural comprehension tests which require them to listen to recorded telephone messages, short radio announcements about the weather, sports events, or concerts, for example, and try to obtain specific information following instructions given beforehand (i.e., "Why can't Mr. X come to the meeting?" "What will the weather be like tomorrow?" "Who will play against team X this weekend?" "At what time will the concert end?").

The revised system adopted for grading in the departmental courses is as follows: 40 percent for graded class work (writing, reading comprehension, oral presentations, culture quizzes), 20 percent for laboratory (listening comprehension) or graded oral work (in Level III courses which do not have scheduled lab sessions), 20 percent for the departmental midterm examination, and 20 percent for the departmental final examination. Each of the departmental examinations consists of

separate tests measuring listening comprehension and speaking (oral and interview), and a written test of grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and culture. The grade on the test of writing, reading, and culture is assigned a weight of 50 percent of both examinations. The oral interview and listening comprehension grades have each been assigned a weight of 25 percent of the total grade on the departmental exams. Thus, oral/aural skills now represent 50 percent of the students' grades under the new system.

The Department of Romance Languages at Howard University continues a vigorous campaign to expose teachers to proficiency-oriented techniques for teaching and to encourage them to use these techniques in their classes, not only in the basic language program, but at all levels. A natural link has been established between classroom activities and testing procedures as the program coordinators aim to insure that each test includes items which measure students' ability to use their foreign language in authentic real-life contexts. The restructuring process is a continual one. The department is currently seeking ways to incorporate more communicative activities in the courses for French and Spanish majors and minors, which remain, for the most part, traditional in nature.

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3
Brothers Grimm Bicentennial: Blueprint for A Community Celebration

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The years 1985-86 marked the 200th anniversary of the births of Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm, two German scholars who recorded fairy tales, myths, legends, and folk songs. Germans and Americans alike cherish memories of Cinderella, Sleeping Beauty, Little Red Riding Hood, Snow White, Rapunzel, Hansel and Gretel, the Bremen Town Musicians, and many other fairy tales which now constitute an important aspect of the cultural heritage of the Western World.

Germanists often deplore the decreasing interest in German language study and try various approaches to change this situation. However, they tend to overlook the possibility of reaching out into the non-German-speaking community with German cultural programs. Interest in the German language will increase naturally when there is greater public awareness and appreciation of the rich cultural heritage of the German-speaking world. Based on the surprisingly positive response in our community to a Brothers Grimm project, other foreign language teachers are urged to share their knowledge and expertise with local educators, librarians, artists, and musicians. The Grimm Brothers' fairy tales offered a wonderful opportunity for opening a dialogue and entering into meaningful collaboration with different segments of the community. In this paper the author will share her experience with this project and will provide a kind of blueprint for planning similar projects elsewhere. She will also point out possibilities for broadening the subject to conduct educational programs for different cultures and other foreign languages.

Where to Begin

In order to encourage our community to commemorate the anniversary, a network of interested parties was set up which created programs in a number of areas: reading of the fairy tales; arts and crafts; stage, puppet, and pantomime performances; dances; and German cultural projects. The public and private sectors, the educational establishment, and civic organizations were involved.

The first task was to locate individuals besides Germanists who shared an interest in either fairy tales or in the cultural and educational merits of the project. In other words, collaborators and fellow workers were needed in order to achieve success. German students and friends were the first to be recruited. Later the following people and organizations were identified:

1. Librarians and their organizations, such as the Reading Council;
2. Educators: school supervisors for social sciences, art education, and music; individual teachers and principals;
3. Theatre groups in the community;
4. Ballet and modern dance groups, and other performing groups;
5. PTA groups;
6. Media people who could help with publicity;
7. Financial sponsors, donors.

In addition, people from McNeese State University, the Council for International Concerns, and the Arts and Humanities Council were approached. They provided support by publicizing our efforts and by duplicating newsletters and other materials. The Goethe Institute, the German Embassy, as well as the German Information Center in New York were also helpful.

Scheduling of Different Activities

1. Meetings. An informal brainstorming session was scheduled for a small group of interested persons in a private home. The group met only

twice more to familiarize additional people with the plans and to start translating ideas into projects. Thereafter the individual projects picked up momentum so rapidly that they began to take on a life of their own. It was therefore decided not to waste time in meetings, but rather to communicate by phone and newsletter.

2. The Newsletter. It is vitally important to keep in touch with other involved individuals for information and moral support. For this purpose, a newsletter was established. It was always informal, short (never over two pages long), included project updates and dates of events, and informed everyone about available resources and resource persons with phone numbers and/or addresses. Of course, it listed the names and phone numbers of project leaders and key people. These letters were sent not only to active participants, but were also used to inform prospective volunteers, the media, or anyone else interested in the Brothers Grimm project. The importance of these regular communiqués for building momentum of the program and for keeping up morale can not be stressed enough.

3. Publicity. It was important to have good publicity for the Bicentennial and for each different project and program. It was possible to achieve good coverage by the local TV station and newspaper by personally writing the stories and submitting the finished articles to the media. It was considered essential not only to give public credit for accomplishments, but also to draw attention to German culture and to educate the public about its rich contributions to our American culture.

A summary of scheduling activities is as follows:

a) Two or three informal brainstorming sessions with at least six persons;
b) Newspaper articles about the project, with a request for volunteers;
c) Regular newsletter updates to all active participants;
d) Letters to the superintendent (request for project approval); to the principals (project information); to supervisors of arts, music education, and social studies;
e) Determination of a good date for asking the Mayor to proclaim a "Brothers Grimm Day" for the community once project scheduling begins;
f) A formal, official letter of appreciation to the organizer, his/her supervisor, and his/her school

superintendent when an individual's project has been completed successfully;

g) A letter to the editor in a newspaper can also provide public recognition;

h) Awards for main organizers if there is a sponsoring agency or a German organization (prizes are sometimes available from individual donors and from the Goethe Institute).

Possible Activities

The projects ranged from performances at the Lake Charles Civic Center by a community theatre group to school projects, including art work in middle and high schools and German folk dance performances by elementary students. The following are the major projects:

1. Reading Projects. A reading project for the school system was the most important and most successful project. It reached thousands of youngsters, created lots of enthusiasm and interest, and generated many related projects. It was organized by the Calcasieu Parish Reading Council, an organization for librarians who were eager contributors. They were familiar with the Brothers Grimm—which even many teachers are not—and they responded enthusiastically to the subject. They were excellent "networkers" and had good communication links throughout the school system. In this project many school librarians transformed not only their libraries into a magic fairy-tale world, but also their entire schools.

What were the special reading projects? For the winter semester, the president of our Reading Council, Dr. Phyllis Cuevas, initiated and coordinated a "Reading Challenge" project for elementary schools: any student who read fifteen or more fairy tales before December 15 received a book mark. Teachers could also read to their classes. Some 7,000 youngsters completed the goal and received a handsome book mark. The total number of participants was even greater than that.

The following spring, the Reading Council sponsored a "Reading on the Mall" project, where school classes could exhibit or perform any project that was based on the reading of a fairy tale: puppet presentations, pantomimes, parades of book characters, choral readings, performances, dancing, arts and crafts, cartoons, and many more. By bringing together the work of many teachers and students, this event was

a highlight in the year's activities and demonstrated the extent to which creative energies had been mobilized by the fairy tales. Many projects were highly original and of excellent quality. They drew a lot of enthusiastic spectators on a busy Saturday in a shopping mall.

2. German Culture Activities. Many schools built study units about Germany around the project. Some elementary schools developed comprehensive schoolwide activities which culminated in excellent public performances and school programs. Ms. Opal Young, the principal of St. Johns Elementary School, for example, included the following in her school's program:

German Culture Activities
- A. Travel kit
- B. Foods
- C. Product map
- D. Pen friends with German students
- E. Booklets
- F. Folk songs
- G. Folk dances
- H. Folk costumes

Grimms' Fairy Tale Activities:
- A. Fairy tales
- B. Art work
  1. Post cards
  2. Wall decorations
  3. Cartoons
- C. Plays
- D. Puppets

These programs were beautifully executed by students and teachers and were enthusiastically received by parents and the public.

3. Art Projects. Artists were very receptive to the topic of German fairy tales and therefore responded enthusiastically. Our arts supervisor, Dr. Daniel Vidrine, took the project into art classes from elementary through high schools. He had hundreds of youngsters of all ages involved in creating art work ranging from bookmarks to puppets and masks to life-sized poster figures. The twenty-five best bookmarks were chosen and reproduced (photocopied on colored poster paper) to be used

as awards for some 7,000 elementary school readers of fifteen fairy tales or more.

4. Public Play Productions. Dr. Susan Kelso, a professor of theatre at McNeese State University, wrote the script for *Grimms' Magic,* a wonderful, original play which introduces young audiences to the Brothers Grimm and some of their fairy tales. The play was produced at the Civic Center before large crowds of spectators, and again in schools and libraries by MSU students. Other public performances included a Hansel and Gretel Opera, the Pied Piper of Hamlin ballet, fairy tales as a Mardi Gras Krewe's theme, and others. None of the latter had been initiated by the original organizers, but were generated by the growing interest and enthusiasm for the fairy tales. For the Bicentennial organizers this was a most rewarding, welcome spin-off and a good indication of the success of our efforts.

Conclusions

The Brothers Grimm Bicentennial celebrations reached many sectors of our community, thus achieving much more than our original goal had entailed. Education came alive when the participants enjoyed what they were doing and had a chance to get creatively involved. Organizers, performers, audiences, and students in the fairy tale projects exuded sheer fun and enthusiasm. What better way of learning—and learning about German culture—could there be! It is the hope of the author that some readers will be inspired to follow this example and lead their community to a similarly rewarding learning adventure. One need not wait for the tricentennial for a Grimm Brothers project. Fairy tale programs can be celebrated anytime. More important, however, is the fact that such a collaborative cultural project is so stimulating and valuable to the community that it begs to be continued and expanded into different cultures. For instance, this year the Lake Charles community collaborated to sponsor programs on the European Mediterranean countries: Spain, France, Italy, and Greece. Next year's topic will be the British Isles, and after that Black Africa. Since these community-wide programs are becoming so popular, long-range plans are being formulated to cover the major cultures of the world over the course of several years. The Grimm Brothers Bicentennial clearly shows how very valuable joint projects and cooperative ventures between educational and community organizations can be. Viel Spass und guten Erfolg!

4
Florida: State of the Foreign Language Arts

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Introduction

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Latin and Greek were not only the most popular foreign languages taught in the United States, but they were also the most important subjects in the school curriculum. After the democratization of American schools, Latin and Greek continued their popularity as mental disciplines. Today, Latin has continued in the high school curriculum both as a mental discipline and as a vehicle to better understand English and western civilization. Classical Greek has almost disappeared completely. Modern Greek is being taught in some places.

Since the eighteenth century, French has maintained its status as the cultural foreign language. German began to emerge in the eighteenth century as a practical language, but during the nineteenth century also fell under the orientation of mental disciplines. After World War I the teaching of German declined dramatically. The teaching of Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish began in the eighteenth century for the practical values of these languages in international commerce. Spanish enrollment has continued to increase in the modern language curriculum, and in contemporary times has been the most popular foreign language in the American high school offerings.

The teaching of modern languages has always been considered as part of the secondary school curriculum. Modern languages and Latin had been sporadically taught in elementary schools, but other than during periods of strong federal financial support, no serious efforts have been placed on planning, implementing, and maintaining modern languages at the elementary level. The practical values for teaching and learning a foreign language have been seldom considered. Latin and Greek were

taught in New England for the reading and interpretation of the Scriptures. In a theocratic state this teaching had practical values. After democratization of schooling in America, Latin and Greek remained as college-entrance requirements with very little practical value. Those languages that were taught at the beginning for their practical values in international commerce, such as Italian and Spanish, promptly became mental disciplines in the nineteenth century. The declines in modern language enrollment in recent times may reflect the lack of practical values placed in the modern language curriculum.

In the world that communications makes smaller every day, it is important and necessary that people from different linguistic and cultural groups be able to understand each other. The teaching of modern languages should focus on both extrinsic and intrinsic values. Modern languages should not only be considered as college-entrance requirements; they should also be considered as practical skills for everyone. The foreign language profession is changing its pedagogical philosophy at the national level to fulfill this need in foreign language education by placing an increasing emphasis on the development of functional ability.

In the State of Florida the teaching of foreign languages has followed national trends since the end of the nineteenth century. At the present time, there is a renaissance in the study of foreign languages. Foreign language education has become the "basic plus" in the State of Florida. Recent legislation has provided a positive impact on enrollment, curriculum, and teachers. This paper describes and interconnects the causes of the expansion of the study of foreign languages in Florida.

Changes in Enrollment

Enrollment in foreign language classes has increased dramatically in Florida. The number of students taking foreign languages (K-Adult) in the school year 1985-86 was 283,190, a 20 percent increase over the previous year. There were 176,392 students taking foreign languages at the secondary level, representing 37 percent of secondary enrollment. These annual increases have been present for the last four school years. The reasons for this increase in enrollment seem to be based in one mandate, the State University System entrance requirement, and two programs, the Florida Academic Scholars Program and the Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools (FLES) Program.

Although foreign languages are elective credits for high school graduation requirements, effective August 1, 1987, all freshmen and all undergraduate transfer students must have two high school academic units in foreign language or the equivalent to be admitted to any of the nine universities that comprise the State University System. However, undergraduate transfer students from community colleges with Associate of Arts (AA) degrees or from other institutions with sixty or more semester hours of transferable credit are not required to have two units in foreign language for admission until August 1, 1989, as provided by 1986 statutory amendments. During a transition period, the law specifically exempts two groups of undergraduate students from the foreign language requirement. The first exempt group includes those students who receive AA degrees prior to September 1, 1987. The second group of exempted students includes those who enroll full-time in a program of studies leading to an Associate of Arts degree from a Florida community college prior to August 1, 1989, and who maintain continuous full-time enrollment until they are admitted to a university. Continuous full-time enrollment is defined as enrollment for a minimum of 24 credit hours during any two semesters and a related summer term. The credits may be of any type offered by a community college. With the 1986 Legislature's change to the law, a new requirement for a state university student has been established. Beginning August 1, 1987, and continuing until August 1, 1989, undergraduate transfer students who are admitted to a university and who have not completed two credits of sequential enrollment or the equivalent of such instruction at the postsecondary level (and who are not in one of the two previously described exempt groups) must earn such foreign language credits or the equivalent before they may be admitted to the upper division of the university. However, beginning August 1, 1989, all undergraduate students (freshmen and transfer students) who are not in one of the two exempt groups, must already have earned the equivalent of two credits of sequential foreign language at the secondary level before admission to a university.

It is obvious that this university entrance requirement has increased, and will continue to increase, the enrollment of college-bound students in foreign language courses. It is also obvious that the entrance requirement has created some problems at the high school level, such as increasing enrollment in the first two levels of the languages; this causes administrative problems concerning priority of these courses over upper-level courses. Also, some students with a very low aptitude for foreign

languages in general have to take the language courses if they are college-bound students. However, these problems represent only a small proportion of the total enrollment.

Another program that has increased enrollment is the Florida Academic Scholars Program. It recognizes and rewards outstanding high school graduates who complete a rigorous and advanced program of prescribed academic studies, including two years of a foreign language. Any two sequential courses in grades 9-12, in the same language, from those listed in the Department of Education Course Code Directory (with the exception of courses designated as conversational) can be used to fulfill the requirements of the Florida Academic Scholars Program. The impact of this program on enrollment was very high at the beginning. With the advent of the college entrance requirement, this impact has been diluted because all college-bound students have to take two years of a foreign language and the outstanding students in the program are likely to be college-bound. Also, the students in this program have to take so many required courses that they have very few elective courses should they want to continue the study of a foreign language beyond the second year at the high school level.

Finally, the Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools (FLES) Program is starting to increase enrollment in upper level courses because the students who have taken a foreign language in elementary schools arrive in secondary education at an advanced level. The FLES program provides funds for foreign language instruction in elementary schools. Local school districts must match state funds on a one-to-one basis to participate in the program. It started in school year 1982-83 with twelve school districts participating. By the beginning of the 1986-87 academic term, there were twenty-four schools districts participating in the program with an enrollment of more than 50,000 students. Although Spanish is the most popular language in the program, French and Latin classes are starting to emerge. The program is spread throughout the state with many small rural school districts participating.

Curricular Changes

As enrollment has increased, so the curriculum for foreign languages has become more consistent throughout the state. Chapter 83-350, *Laws of Florida*, authorized the Department of Education to develop, maintain, and revise curriculum frameworks for the purpose of

insuring a degree of instructional consistency within academic disciplines among middle and high schools in Florida. Also, state statutes authorized school districts to adopt student performance standards for each academic program in grades 9-12 for which credit toward high school graduation is awarded. These standards were based on the uniform curriculum frameworks adopted by the State Board of Education. The school boards also establish policies as to student mastery of performance standards before credit for the program can be awarded. The development of these curriculum frameworks and student performance standards was conducted by statewide task forces composed of foreign language faculty and supervisory staff from almost half of the school districts in Florida. Uniformity was the legislative mandate; change was the task forces' decision. The curriculum frameworks and student performance standards were loosely based on the competencies developed by the initial ACTFL/ETS Provisional Proficiency Guidelines (1982). These state-adopted standards require that the students perform, at the end of each school year or level, certain linguistic tasks that vary from survival skills at the lower levels to elaborated skills at the upper level.

Although no specific methodology is mandated, these competencies represent certain changes in education philosophy. In foreign language education, Florida, as well as the rest of the nation, has gone from a grammar-translation approach to a communicative approach, passing through the audio-lingual methodology. The base is now set for foreign language instruction geared toward an active utilization of the language by the students. The program created by the curriculum frameworks has been basically accepted by the teachers. Its implementation requires a great deal of staff development.

Teacher Shortage

The increase in enrollment during the last four years has resulted in a shortage of foreign language teachers. To counteract this shortage, the Legislature has established various programs. The largest and most important is the Critical Teacher Shortage Program. This program has created a series of advantages for present and future teachers, such as staff development, grants, loans, and tuition reimbursement programs.

The Summer Inservice Institute Program, created under the Critical Teacher Shortage Program, is one of the most exciting and most

enthusiastically received staff development programs ever introduced in Florida. This program was established by the 1983 Legislature and implemented for the first time in the summer of 1984. The program requires each school district or group of districts to conduct an inservice institute which provides rigorous training for public school instructional personnel. The legislation and concomitant rule specify that the instruction must be intensive subject-area content training. Each year the legislature determines the areas of instruction that will be addressed in the forthcoming institutes and the instructional personnel who will be eligible to participate. Foreign language teachers have been participating in the program since the summer of 1985. The foreign language institutes may provide rigorous content instruction in any foreign language listed in the Course Code Directory. Eligible participants are those instructional personnel with the assigned responsibility for teaching an eligible foreign language. First priority is given to those teaching a foreign language out-of-field and to those participating in an approved foreign language add-on certification program. This is done to increase the number of teachers certified in foreign languages. A foreign language teacher may participate in one of the courses addressing a language that he/she is presently not teaching. The length of instruction in the institutes is sixty hours. They are usually conducted in a two-week period. Although specific content instruction is mandatory, there are situations in which methodology is included in the instruction. The amount of time allotted to the teaching of methodology and other pedagogy cannot be more than twelve hours. The main thrust of the program, therefore, is to increase language skills.

Another program that provides staff development activities for foreign language teachers is the Tuition Reimbursement Program. It has been created to encourage Florida teachers to become certified to teach a foreign language or to gain a graduate degree in a critical teacher shortage area and, consequently, to teach in a critical teacher shortage area. Participants may receive tuition reimbursement payments for up to nine semester hours, or the equivalent in quarter hours, per academic year, at a rate not to exceed $78 per semester hour, up to a total of thirty-six semester hours. All tuition reimbursements are contingent on passing an approved course with a minimum grade of 3.0 or its equivalent. Only full-time teachers certified to teach in Florida and currently teaching full-time in the Florida public school system, who are taking courses to either acquire certification or improve their skills in a designated critical teacher shortage area (CTSA), are eligible to apply for tuition reimbursement.

Another program is designed to attract graduates certified in a CTSA designated by the Florida Department of Education to teach in the area in the public school system. Eligible teachers may have up to $10,000 of principal balance of educational loans repaid by the state, $2,500 per year for undergraduate study, and $5,000 per year for graduate study leading to certification in a CTSA and who is teaching for the first time in a critical shortage area in a Florida public school.

Finally, two other programs are designed to attract future teachers. One is the Critical Teacher Shortage Scholarship Loan Program that is available to junior, senior, or graduate students at eligible Florida institutions; these students must be enrolled in teacher education programs preparing to become foreign language teachers. The loan amount is $4,000 per year for a maximum of two years. If a recipient completes the teacher education program and teaches as a full-time teacher in Florida for four years, there is no monetary repayment. If the recipient does not complete the teacher education program or does not teach in Florida, the scholarship/loan is repaid with interest. The other program is the Masters' Fellowship Loan Program that is designed to attract liberal arts graduates and science graduates to teach in the Florida public school system. It provides financial assistance to those students who are admitted to a Masters' Program for Teachers developed jointly between the College of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences at a participating Florida university. The value of the fellowship/loan is $6,000 plus payment of tuition and fees for two semesters and up to two summer sessions. Fellowship recipients shall complete three years of public school service within five years after graduation from the program. Any person who fails to complete the program or the required teaching service is also liable to repay the loan with interest.

Some other measures have been taken for counteracting the teacher shortage. An Alternative Certification Program has been created to provide certification to persons who hold a bachelor's degree in a foreign language. Adjunct instructors can be hired as part of the Visiting School Scholars Program. Retired teachers can be hired as substitute teachers and, finally, legislative action called for the expansion of the Department of Education's career information system and the establishment of a teacher referral and recruitment center.

In order to address the growing international education needs of the state, the 1986 Legislature passed the International Education Act, which established the Office of International Education. This office coordinates activities on international education in cooperation with

academic institutions and other agencies with funds provided by the Legislature for this purpose. The duties of the Office of International Education include the following:

1. serving as information clearinghouse on international education resources;
2. compiling, maintaining, and disseminating a directory of international education resources;
3. providing liaison with federal, state and governmental agencies, as requested, on issues related to international education; and,
4. administering the Latin American/Caribbean Basin Scholarship Program.

The Florida Commission on International Education was created under the same act. It is staffed by the Office of International Education. The Commission is an advisory entity to state government. This Commission and the Office of International Education have as one of their main mandates to encourage public schools, community colleges, and universities to incorporate international education into their programs and strengthen the international character of course offerings, faculty resources, and research opportunities. Such activities may include, but are not limited to, the provision of:

1. instruction in foreign languages and culture, political education and economic development, as part of the regular K-12 curriculum and in postsecondary education;
2. foreign languages and international studies as components of in-field courses for the certification and recertification of elementary and secondary teachers;
3. means through which the delivery of foreign language instruction may be strengthened;
4. foreign language and international education components within summer inservice institutes and staff and program development activities;
5. participation in overseas academic, research, international trade, and cross-cultural exchange programs

for Florida and Latin American/Caribbean students and faculty members;

6. international magnet high school and international programs which draw on resources of the local international business community, other postsecondary institutions, and other agencies.

Another project giving impetus to language study is entitled Foreign Language Instruction in Florida (FLIF): An Assessment of Its Status and Recommendations for Its Future. This recently funded state project under Title II of the Education for Economic Security Act (Public Law 98-377) examines the educational needs of the State of Florida in the area of foreign language education in light of Section 240.231(1)(b), Florida Statutes, which requires that after August 1, 1987, all students must have two years of a foreign language or its equivalent in order to be admitted to any one of Florida's nine public universities. The FLIF project, by conducting an evaluation and developing recommendations, will assist the state and its public institutions in determining what actions should be taken in order to make appropriate adjustments. Improvements will enable students to move through instruction efficiently and at uniform levels of performance. The project's objectives are:

1. recommend, for each level of education, foreign language proficiency standards to be used to:
   a. assess course equivalencies offered in high schools, community colleges, and universities;
   b. evaluate appropriate foreign language placement tests as a means of moving students through instruction on an individualized basis as standards are achieved; and,
   c. evaluate the applicability of instructional technologies (instructional computers, interactive video, video cassettes, radio, television, and traditional language laboratory equipment) to the instructional needs of students and teachers.

2. develop recommendations for policy changes in the rules of the State Board of Education, Board of Regents, and State Board of Community Colleges

related to the implementation of the new foreign language requirement at all levels of education.

3. design a resource requirement model for foreign language instruction which identifies and generates the basis for needs for additional staff, program and staff development and instructional equipment.

The FLIF project involves approximately 45 faculty and academic administrators from the public school, community college, and university systems. Staff members from the Division of Public Schools, Board of Regents, and State Board of Community Colleges participate in the project also. The final recommendations of the project will be available during the spring of 1987.

Summary and Conclusions

Recent legislative actions have had heavy impact on foreign language education in the State of Florida. Increases in enrollment, due primarily to university entrance requirements, have created a shortage of foreign language teachers. The actions taken to reduce this shortage have been effective, reducing the percentage of foreign language classes taught by out-of-field teachers. However, the number of teachers needed to fulfill the state's staffing needs are still in the hundreds.

At the same time that increases in enrollment and decreases in teacher availability are occurring, changes in curriculum are inclining the foreign language education philosophy toward a more communicative approach. All of these changes have been occurring without major problems because of actions taken by the Legislature dealing with staff development and new hiring practices and incentives. Although foreign language education at the present moment is going through very significant but positive changes, school and district administrative and teaching staff are working at their utmost strength to prepare students to become proficient in foreign languages. The future of foreign language education in Florida looks as bright as the horizons being opened to the students.

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5
Planning and Teaching For Listening Proficiency

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For years foreign language teachers have read that listening comprehension is the neglected skill in the foreign language classroom, and certainly, materials available for classroom use have tended to place greater emphasis on reading, writing, and speaking. It has been more by chance than by design that some students have become effective listeners, since there are neither sufficient listening comprehension activities nor recommendations for developing the skill in the classroom contained in most current texts. In recognition of the necessity of listening training and practice for language acquisition, Krashen (1982), Asher (1977) and others have developed specific methods for teaching language through listening. Byrnes (1984), Meyer (1984), Medley (1985), Omaggio (1986), and others have defined the fundamental role of listening in the foreign language curriculum, as well as strategies for teaching listening comprehension. Richards (1984) has developed a taxonomy of listening skills. Most recently, the development of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines for all language skills (ACTFL 1982, 1986) has affirmed the importance of listening in the total curriculum.

At the Louisiana State University Laboratory School, the four-year course sequences in French and Spanish have taken ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines as a basis upon which to plan for development of language skills. In the area of listening proficiency, the four-year sequences emphasize the teaching of listening comprehension skills coordinately with other linguistic skills, followed by practice in listening, both for specific skill development and for global understanding.

Listening skills development can be easily integrated into the total foreign language curriculum. Since the ultimate goal of the language courses is to produce students capable of communication in the second language, and since proficiency is developed by means of comprehensible input (Krashen et al. 1984), daily listening and reading

activities to be followed by speaking and writing activities are essential. We include listening activities in each class period in all four levels. Some of the activities are as simple as teacher-talk, while others are progressively more structured.

For all listening activities, the students should be required to do something in response. Prior to beginning the activity, they should know how they must respond. During the first year, a larger percent of the total listening time (35 percent) is directed to training in listening for syntax cues and other mechanical aspects of the language. In the following three years, the percent of listening time devoted to mechanical aspects of the language decreases until at Level IV it is 5 percent or less.

Development of the listening sequence in our curriculum evolved in three stages. First the high school years of study were correlated with the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines for Listening (ACTFL 1982, 1986) based on which language functions the students would be expected to master at each level of instruction. Specifically, in the first-year course, students are expected to reach Intermediate-Low on the ACTFL scale. The students would be able to understand sentence-length utterances which are recombinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas. Their understanding may be uneven; they may ask for repetition and rewording.

In the second-year course, students should progress to Intermediate-Mid level. Students in French II or Spanish II should understand simple questions and simple conversations. These students, too, may need repetition or rewording and still have difficulty understanding conversation at normal rate. Their vocabulary is still very limited.

By the end of the third-year course, students should function at Intermediate-High level, including understanding questions and answers, simple face-to-face conversations in standard speech. Students should understand the main ideas and some details of short telephone conversations, media announcements, and other authentic material. The vocabulary is generally limited to personal background and needs. In conversation, the students may need some repetition or rewording and generally will need a slightly slowed rate of speech.

In the fourth-year of language study, the students continue to develop at Intermediate-High, and some students reach the Advanced Level, as their mastery of vocabulary and structure continues.

In the second stage of course development, course content for each level was reviewed to determine what information about the sounds

of the language students must have in order to carry out the appropriate listening functions. A crucial point here is that the development of good listening skills is dependent upon the students learning 1) where various structure indicators occur in spoken language, 2) what sounds those various structure indicators have, and 3) how to anticipate structural patterns in the language they are learning. If students internalize these concepts, and if they are given sufficient practice in the first two years of language study, their future tasks in listening are much facilitated.

The third stage of course development consisted of structuring sequenced activities for teaching and practicing the listening concepts to permit students to become effective listeners. Instruction and practice activities at all levels of instruction are divided into three categories: mechanical, contrived language practice, and unadapted native speech. The approximate percent of time used for each category, out of the total time devoted to listening comprehension at each level, is as follows:

	Level I	Level II	Level III	Level IV
Mechanical	35%	20%	5%	1-5%
Contrived Language Practice	60%	75%	75%	75%
Unadapted Native Speech	5%	5%	20%	20-25%

The first category, Mechanical, includes instruction and practice of discrimination of sounds, intonation patterns, and structure indicators. The teaching of mechanical concepts uses teacher explanation, teacher models, tape models, and visual representations, such as diagrams and simple charts. In early practice activities, students respond by checking appropriate blocks or columns, marking words or pictures, or by giving other non-verbal responses, in order to minimize oral production by students as they concentrate on the listening skill. In the upper levels, students may respond in one of the ways listed, or they may select an appropriate printed sentence choice, or respond orally, indicating their comprehension of the structure.

The second category, Contrived Listening Practice, includes all ranges of instruction and practice in "getting the message" except unadapted native speech. Contrived Listening Comprehension practice comprises the greatest portion of listening activity. In addition to the taped exercises provided with the text, the teacher incorporates a variety of activities with gestures, props, and visuals to enhance understanding. In Levels I and II students are rarely required to give an oral response to listening skill activities. Included in this category are teacher-talk, total physical response (TPR) activities, dictations, visual-fill-in activities, selected listening, rejoinders, reverse rejoinders, and listening with visual props. Teacher-talk is important: it is tailored to the students' needs, and it demonstrates that the language is "real"—that it is used for communication. Another technique which the students enjoy is "Look, listen, think and write," in which students see a filmstrip based on their unit of study and listen to the accompanying tape which was prepared by native speakers of the language. After viewing the filmstrip, the students listen to the recording a second time with their eyes closed. Next, with their eyes still closed, they think for two minutes about what they saw and heard. Finally, the students write words, phrases, and sentences based on what they remember from the filmstrip and tape. The students not only enjoy this activity, but they progress rapidly from writing only words to writing phrases and sentences as their comprehension and auditory memory increase.

Contrived language practice in Levels III and IV may include any of the activities used in Levels I and II, as well as others which are more advanced. Students are asked to give verbal responses, or to read and choose among responses. Other techniques used at these levels include expectation listening, note-taking, selective listening, longer dictations, comprehension checks, and story line. For story line, students read together the first chapter of a story and discuss in the second language what they think will happen. In the following days, individual students recount orally each of the succeeding chapters until all the story has been told. The students, then, after reading chapter 1, only hear the rest of the story, asking for discussion and clarification as needed, all in the second language. Upon completion of the story, students must turn in a paper or other project approved by the teacher to show they understood the story.

The third category, Unadapted Native Speech, uses the speech of native speakers through visitors to the class, cassette tapes, interviews, videotapes, records, etc. Listening to native speakers in an unmodified

authentic situation can be very frustrating to a Level I student, and yet there are benefits from hearing the natural sound and flow of authentic speech samples. To prevent or minimize frustration, the listening activities must be well defined: students are instructed to listen just for the rhythm of the language, or to listen for colors or other adjectives, or to listen for numbers in a television commercial. In weather forecasts, students are asked to listen for specific weather words.

In Levels III and IV, the amount of time devoted to native speech increases. Use of authentic materials which are culturally rich provides the students with more cues for understanding, such as context and redundancy. Additionally, recordings of short situations of high predictability in which the lexicon and basic structures are known, allow the students to become accustomed to different voice qualities, different rates of speech, identifying syllable boundary phenomena, etc. Appropriate activities include getting the gist of taped interviews, movies and long narratives, stories, folktales, news broadcasts, or other native speech. Prior to beginning a listening activity, the teacher should help the students "tune in" by giving them the basic context and any other necessary clues or cultural background in order for them to understand and anticipate what will follow.

Another technique which allows upper level students to stretch their listening both for details and for implications is expectation listening, in which students listen to part of a tape or videotape, then figure out how to end the selection, based on their understanding. Students also practice listening for socio-linguistic factors to determine the linguistic register used and surmise the relationship between people in a passage. A partial list of supplemental materials for listening used at the Laboratory School is included in the Appendix.

The inclusion of sequential listening training, correlated with the other language skills enables more of our students to reach higher levels of language proficiency. Additionally, the students enjoy their enhanced ability, feeling better prepared to communicate in their second language. Their training in how to master language will also assist them in or out of the classroom in their future contact with the language they have studied.

Appendix

Sources of Materials for Developing Listening Comprehension

SPANISH

Students' Reading Dialogs II, III
Teachers' Auditory Dialogs II, III
From: AMSCO School Publications, Inc.
315 Hudson Street
New York, NY 10013

ALM Filmstrip series with tapes: Level II
From: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich
1372 Peachtree St., N.E.
Atlanta, GA 30367

Children's Records

Villa Alegre
Sesame Street
From: any music store, or write Public Television

Parchis Internacional
Villancicos
From: CBS International
383 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Dictados en Español
Tipos Y Paisajes de Español, II
Blanca Nieves y los siete Enanos
La Ranita
From: Discos Coro
Marca Registrada
Bahia de Perula 80
Mexico 17

Poesia Hispánica

From: Holt, Rinehart and Winston
(A Division of CBS Publishing)
383 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Filmstrips with sound	Level
La Pequeña Vendedora de Fósforos	II
Los Tres Cerditos	I, II
Les Tres Osos	I, II
Platero y Yo	II
Don Quijote de la Mancha	II, III
Escenas Cortas	I, II
Si, Comprendo Español	I-IV
Cuentos y Historietas	III, IV
Claro	I-IV
Ahora a Jugar	I, II
Entrevistas	III, IV
Aires Favoritas	I-IV

From: Gessler Publishing Co., Inc.
900 Broadway
New York, NY 10003-1291

Asi son los mexicanos	I-IV
El Novio Robado	II-IV
El Concierto Siniestro	II-IV
Caminos Peligrosos	I, II
Zarabanda	I, II
Eso Es	III, IV
Por Aquí	III, IV

From: EMC Publishing
300 York Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55101

FRENCH

Listening Programs

Champs-Elysées
From: Champs-Elysées
Nashville, TN
(Call the 800 directory for their toll-free number.)

Canadian Radio News
From: Radio Canada International
Recorded Programmes/Emissions enregistrées
C.P./P.O. Box 6000
Montréal, QUEBEC
Canada H3C 3A8
(They supply a recording of excerpts from news and documentary broadcasts. There are four units of approximately 3 minutes each on each record.)

Média-Louisiane: Phone (318) 233-1020. They rent movies in French, including cartoons, TV programs, and movies from Louisiana and Canada.

Drôle de Mission
Poursuite Inattendue
Suivez la Piste
From: EMC
300 York Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55101
Phone: 1-800-328-1452

Books that are excellent for "Story Line"

Dans le Métro
Le Trésor
Pas de Vacances pour le commissaire
La Fugue d'Isabelle
Prisunic
From: EMC (address and phone number above)

Bilingual Fables

From: National Textbook Co.
4255 West Touhy Avenue
Lincolnwood, IL 60646-1975

ALM Filmstrip series with tapes: Level II
ALM Filmstrip series with records: Level I
From: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich (see above)

French: Practice Testing, Levels I, II, and Comprehensive
From: AMSCO School Publications, Inc.
315 Hudson Street
New York, NY 10013

Filmstrips with sound

Les Trois petits cochons
Voici la Maison
Le Prince pain d'épices
Les Trois petits chats
La Petite Fille aux allumettes
From: Gessler Publishing Co., Inc.
900 Broadway
New York, NY 10003

Cassettes

J'écoute et j'entends
From: Gessler Publishing Co., Inc. (see above)

Video

La Publicité en France
From: Gessler Publishing Co., Inc. (see above)

France From Within
The French Way
From: Heinle and Heinle
20 Park Plaza
Boston, MA 02116

Book and Cassette

Communication +1
Communication +2
From: C.E.C.
Librairie Michel Fortin, Inc.
3714, rue Saint-Denis
Montréal, QUEBEC
Canada H2X 3L7
phone: (514) 849-5719
(These books contain listening, speaking, reading and writing activities centered on daily activities and daily culture. They are excellent!

Records

The Voices of La Salle: Expedition II
From: La Salle Expedition II
135 S. La Salle Street
Room 411
Chicago, IL 60603

La Planète des MICS
From: TransCanada Disques (De GROUPE QUEBECOR, INC)
7033 Route Transcanada
Ville St-Laurent
Quebec H4T 1S2

Music of the World: for catalog, write:
Monitor Records
156 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10010

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6
Early Foreign Language Reading

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The focus of foreign language (FL) and English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) teaching methods and materials continues to shift as a result of a general call for a more natural or functional approach as opposed to a traditional or grammar-based curriculum. Is reading an aid to total communication? Does the early introduction of reading in the foreign language (L2) improve proficiency? Or should reading and writing be left to the more advanced levels or second-language instruction? This paper will address the need for the early introduction of reading skills and will provide some helpful hints to the teacher for materials development and classroom activities.

The Need

Reading in L2 is a vital skill that definitely aids the communication process. Reading provides language input and reinforces the spoken language. Diller (1980) observes that "learning how to read and write, far from being a hindrance to speech, will act instead as strong reinforcement if it is done concurrently with—not weeks or months later (than)—learning how to speak" (pp. 21-22).

Foreign language and ESL learners need to develop reading skills as rapidly as possible since the modern world is print oriented. Anyone living or working in another country will have to deal with the printed word from day one; early literacy is vital, particularly if the language has an unfamiliar alphabet. Early reading intervention using realia from the target culture will prepare the learners for everyday tasks as well as related learning activities such as computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and effective communication in writing (for example, dialogue journals and letters). Since computer programs exist for Arabic, Hebrew, and

Russian as well as the Latin-based languages and ESL, CAI can be an integral part of the reading program. The information explosion provides many new ways for classes to be exposed to the target languages and cultures, and an ability to read will further enhance these activities. Lado (1977) has commented that "at this stage in our professional knowledge...reading should begin when language teaching begins. The pre-reading oral period no longer seems justified" (p. 14). Dr. Lado's observation is for ESL teaching, but the same principles apply to FL teaching as well.

Communication takes place when the L2 is used for sending a real message to meet a specific need and for solving problems. The general consensus is that translations, transformational drills, and memorization may meet certain needs, but these activities do not lead in themselves to the development of functional ability in the language. Krashen and Terrell (1983) note that "according to the input hypothesis, language acquisition can only take place when a message which is being transmitted is understood, i.e. when the focus is on what is being said rather than on the form of the message"(p. 55).

Learners need reading because it is an active skill in which the writer communicates with the reader across time. Reading is more than speech written down; it is a vital part of the L2 system and should be addressed early in the language course. Active early intervention by the instructor is necessary; reading must be taught rather than acquired passively, and it must be presented in a learner-friendly manner as realistically as possible.

Problems

We have established the need for early reading as part of an overall communicative curriculum, but there remain some obstacles to the introduction of an early reading component. FL texts on the market are often too advanced for beginning-level learners since they contain complex structures and a flood of new vocabulary. Such material can overwhelm the reader and create a feeling of frustration and discouragement. This fact is especially true for non-western languages where cognates are few and a new alphabet compounds the initial difficulty. Reading passages containing literary exerpts, although they provide good authentic material, are often too advanced for a novice. Even materials such as advertisements and notices or newspaper

cartoons often thought of as "easy," contain cultural material, proper names, idioms, and specialized vocabulary that can discourage beginners.

Conversely, specifically designed L2 reading material can be dull or irrelevant—the "John goes to the seashore" variety of passage that is diluted and written by the author to illustrate a specific grammar point. A set of questions at the end of such a passage requires specific recall, but can we say that the students actually have "read" this passage for the purpose of gaining new information? Or have they just mechanically looked for answers to the Wh-questions without giving the matter any serious thought?

The "language experience approach" where the students compose their own "reader" through classroom and blackboard exercises offers a possible solution to the class looking for reading material. But the potential for error is high as the resulting texts often contain "interlanguage"; also, these student-generated passages tend to be limited in scope and vocabulary. Look at the following example taken from ESL:

> I came to the United States.
> I studied English.
> I got my driver's license.
> I got a job at ..... University.
> I won the sweepstakes.
> (Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty, 1985, p. 222)

This text could be written in any L2. It is simple and easy to comprehend, but it is repetitive and skewed somewhat and it lacks a really communicative message, seeming to be more of a study of the past tense than anything else. This exercise is a valid classroom activity useful for a warm-up, review, or even a pre-test, but it cannot form the core of a reading program.

Possible Solutions

A creative teacher is not without recourse, however. A variety of "learner-friendly" texts and activities can be generated by the instructor from materials that are readily at hand. The following helpful hints have proven to be useful in both FL and ESL classrooms where beginning

learners were working to develop reading skills. These activities involve both teacher-generated material and adaptations of commercially available texts and are designed to enhance L2 acquisition through communication.

Hint 1: Texts

It is possible for the instructor to develop texts and skill-building exercises for even the lowest level language learners. The content of the passages should deal with the learners' immediate environment and the situations they face every day along with an insight into the target culture. Campus and town activities are a good starting point as are simple descriptions of people and places. Students in beginning classes can read descriptions of the campus, the bookstore, or the student center given through the eyes of an L2 native visiting the campus. Later passages can deal with cultural contrasts and similarities. The instructor can write out these texts based on the campus situation. A very basic passage can be just a written biography of a character from a dialogue—an ambassador for example. A little later in the course, a situation that a foreign student in this country might face if travelling in the L2 culture could be simulated. Think of something humorous that will hold the students' interest. Perhaps Karl or Jacques will need to ride the city bus one day in the USA. What might happen? Here is an example—given in English—of a possible adventure.

The City Bus

Karl lives near ..... University where he studies English. He usually takes the city bus on school days. On the bus he reads the paper or practices his English with the other riders. It is not a long trip but he has to make one transfer before he gets off at the university. The whole trip usually takes between 20 and 30 minutes.

Karl: Hi Mark, are you ready for class?
Mark: Yes, I think, I am working on the verbs now.
Karl: Do you always take this bus?
Mark: Yes, I ride it every day to ..... Community College.

Karl: ..... Community College? This bus goes to ..... State University.
Mark: No, this is number 54. It does downtown. I get off at 4th Streeet and walk over to the college.
Karl: Oh no! I am on the wrong bus, I think. Driver, is this a 52 to ..... State University?
Driver: No
Mark: It is a 54 to 4th Street
Driver: Wrong. This is a 32 to the airport.

This teacher-made encounter is given in the target language and can be set in this country or overseas. Note the humorous twist at the end. If the students laugh, it is clear that they have understood. For this selection the writer assumes that the students have a working knowledge of present verbs and basic sentence structure. One or two high frequency items that the students have not gone over yet can be included, provided the students are not flooded with difficult constructions.

Authentic L2 material can also be accessed and adapted by an innovative teacher. Guidebooks, advertisements, and native-student writings all make good sources. These can be rephrased and shortened to fit a particular class. Even the most basic beginners need to be exposed to the written code of the target language. Note the following example of a low level reading. Again, the situation may depend on the culture of the L2. This particular example is set in a student health center.

The Doctor

Maria is a doctor. She works at the health center at ..... University. Sick students come to her office, and she takes care of their medical problems. She is a very busy person, but doctors are always very busy. Maris enjoys her job because she likes helping people and she meets many interesting students from all over the world.

Maria: What is the matter? Are you sick?
José: I'm fine, but my foot hurts really bad. I don't know what is the matter with it.
Maria: Does it hurt all the time?

José: No, only during the day.
Maria: Here is your problem; you need new shoes.
José: New shoes. That is unusual. Why?
Maria: Your foot is OK, but you have a nail in your shoe. That is causing your problem!

Once again note the use of dialogue and humor. This basic scene can be brought into the L2 being taught, provided the necessary cultural adjustments are made. Or it can be set in a specific college or university with the players being exchange students.

Hint 2: Problem Solving

These teacher-made texts are useful, but texts alone do not make a reading course. The students will try to memorize and translate the passages in anticipation of the next quiz. The reading class can be turned into a problem-solving activity by including skill development exercises. The following example is used to help beginning learners of Modern Standard Arabic, but the concept is valid for any L2. It is teacher-made and printed on a computer.

READING 6 (weeks 8 or 9 of a 4-hour course)
(An introductory dialogue is given first.)

"My name is Fu'ad Khoury. I am a student from Lebanon, and I study here at the University. I have four classes which are English, Middle East history, psychology, and political science. I also play basketball with the university team. I am always busy with studying, sports, and working in the library. I do not live in the dorm; rather I live in an apartment and I ride the bus to the university. My apartment is large and two friends from Lebanon live with me."

The vocabulary is high frequency and student oriented. This type of reading passage will be assimilated better than the typical exercise of a more grammar-based approach. Note the following reading passage from a text for Arabic. The level is about the same as the preceding.

Exercise 5.2 Reading aloud, then translate:
1. My cheap watch.
2. Salim's package is heavy.
3. The important announcement of the papers.
4. The fat driver of the car. (Smart 1986, p. 63)

The first exercise is much more realistic than the isolated sentence in the second. After the students read through the passage about Fu'ad Khoury, they are required to think of themselves in a similar situation:

Exercise 1. Write about yourself.
I ..... at The University of ..... I am from ..... I have ..... classes which are ....., ..., and ..... I am always busy. I enjoy ..... and ..... I live in .....

Each student's response will be different. They can prepare notes and ask each other questions. The teacher should also do the exercise about his or her own situation, "I am professor of ..... at ....." and share it with the class.

Next the learners can change the given text in a number of ways as a grammatical exercise. For example, they can change Fu'ad Khoury to Sa'idah Khoury thus making all the verbs and adjectives feminine, but such a grammatical transformation should be immediately followed by a communicative exercise where the focus is on authentic language use.

Other functional exercises can include synonyms, comprehension questions, word forms, and sentence combining. All of these encourage the learner to work with the written form of the L2 without having to translate into English.

The following is based on a reading about life in Beirut and illustrates one way an activity might be constructed.

Choose the correct word.
Husan is a teacher. (His house) (My house) (This) is in Beirut. He eats in the (living) (dining) (bed) room and watches television in the (living) (waiting) (dining) room. The cook (fem.) [cooks (fem.)] [cooks (masc.)] (studies) in the kitchen (etc.)

This is an example of a sentence-combining exercise.

Rewrite the passage by combining sentences.

1. 'Abd al-Aziz is a king. He is a great king. His home is in Najd.
2. He lives in a city. The city is beautiful. It name is Al-Riad.
3. He is a ruler. He is just. The people love him.

.....

(..... 'Abd al-Aziz is a great king in Najd. He lives in a beautiful city called Al-Riad. He is a just ruler and the people love him. (Adapted from Ziadeh and Winder 1957, Unit 12.)

This particular reading passage was about King Abd al-Aziz. Instead of merely translating it, the learners work through the problem-solving exercise. The finished exercise should be written down on the board and the class can then re-read the passage in its new form.

Hint 3: Authoring

The preceding examples are a step beyond the basic reading exercises found in most texts, but they still are somewhat mechanical in nature. After reading the passage and going over the written work, the learners should move on to totally creative activities. For example, they can write mini-biographies of characters in the readings and dialogues.

Write a biography of Karl (from "The City Bus").
Birth place.....
School .....
College.....
Major.....
Sports..... (Di Donato, 1986).

If the students are beginners, care should be taken not to overload them. As they provide the information for the chart, the teacher can fill it in, then write out the biography as a short supplemental reading passage. This is something the students themselves help to create; it has high interest value and is much more meaningful than "The house is big" or "John goes to the seashore" type of activity.

Another possibility is to have the class invent an ending to a given story as in the following example:

> Karl and Mark are on the wrong bus. What happens now? Mark says to the driver, "....." Driver: "You can't get off now. The next stop is a ..... Karl and Mark get off at ....., then they .....

Or three possible endings to the story could be given; the class chooses one and gives an explanation.

Another way for the learners to become involved in the reading and writing activity is to provide them with a matrix and have them generate a passage from the material. Present a chart of information for reading and discussion, guide the class through a short writing exercise, then share the written passages as a further reading/skillbuilding activity. This activity is aimed at early beginners, therefore it does not have to have more than a few lines of material. A trip chart is an excellent starting point:

Monday	Cairo	(Air)
Tuesday	Alexandria	(Train)
Wednesday	Aaman	(Air)
Thursday	Damascus	(Bus)
Friday	Allepo	(Bus)

This type of exercise focuses on language functions in real situations. Rather than just reading through a passage and memorizing, the students discuss a planned activity and learn place names, modes of transportation, and the verbs necessary for the particular situation, such as travel, ride, fly and so on. They can add to the chart as well. For example: Where will they stay in each city? What will they see? What will they do? Depending on the level of the class, the activity could be set in the past or the number of stops could be increased. Each student can then write out a passage or the instructor can take a composite of the student responses and make up a passage for the entire class to work through.

Hint 4: Unfamiliar Alphabet

Encourage L2 readers to recognize whole words as well as to decode phonetically. Word recognition is especially important for languages with non-Latin alphabets. Both phonetic decoding and sight word recognition are important subskills; the two work together and learners should be encouraged to apply both strategies. This approach is used successfully to teach ESL to non-literate adults, and there is no reason why it cannot be used to teach an L2 with an unfamiliar alphabet. Note the following from Bowen, Madsen, & Hilfery (1985):

> There is no conclusive evidence that either the Whole Word or the Linguistic Method (precise decoding) for introducing reading texts works best with all students. Nor is there any assurance that when reading, a student will practice only one or the other exclusively. Current research shows that adult learners usually figure out the sound-symbol patterns no matter what the teacher's approach, and that the average learner just beginning to read ESL decodes spelling patterns, recognizes whole words, guesses from context, and makes predictions. (p. 224)

Thus a mixed wholistic approach is recommended for ESL, and the same concepts transfer readily into FL teaching when a non-Latin alphabet is involved. The sight words give the students something to work with right away while they are learning how to decode them phonetically (Magrath, forthcoming.)

Hint 5: Subskills

The various reading subskills of guessing from context, visual discrimination, eye movement photography, and skimming and scanning from the native language (L1) may not always transfer into L2, particularly given the general decline of L1 reading skills. Thus these skills should be enhanced by aggressive intervention on the part of the reading instructor. The following example from Yorkey (1981) may seem very basic, but it makes an important point.

> Jack's arrows were nearly all gone, so he sat down and stopped hunting. Then he saw Henry making a bow to a little girl . . . she had tears in her dress and tears in her eyes. (p. 4)

Notice the first inclination to understand bow as part of a bow and arrow set. Students have learned this skill in L1 and need to transfer the contextual guessing to L2. This is the reason why the reading passages should be unified wholes and not just isolated sentences. The semantic message and the words should work together to transmit the message.

Conclusion

The content of the early reading passages should deal with realistic situations likely to be faced by the target group of learners. These readings are much more likely to be comprehended and remembered than grammatical passages or stories abut run-away trains. Adding to stored knowledge is more effective than attempting to retain new material that has no base. As Rivers and Melvin (1977) have stated, "Second language material must build on what students know and what arouses their curiosity at their age and in their circumstances" (p. 58).

The reading strategies discussed here are an aid to active communication as well as an enhancement to the internalization of the target language. After developing basic reading skills through the application of these suggestions, the learners will be ready to go on to more difficult passages and unedited material in the target language.

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7
Memory Hooks: Clues For Language Retention

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When students at the beginning of the year explain why they are taking Spanish, many of them say that they heard it was easy. However, if the same students are asked later in the year if they found it to be so, they most likely say no. The vocabulary, the subjunctive, the demonstratives, and the uses of *ser* and *estar* are but some of the mysteries of the language that are often difficult for students to master.

In order to help our students remember these difficult concepts, we have devised several memory hooks to facilitate recall and retention of the material. These strategies that on many forms: visuals, sounds, rhythms, rhymes, or even actions. In order to use some of these mnemonic or memory-assisting devices, you as the teacher may have to act a little crazy, but you will find that your antics will be remembered forever. In this paper we describe several memory hooks that we have found to be effective with class after class.

The Subjunctive

Let's start with one of the most difficult areas for students: the subjunctive mood. We know that to form it, we tell our students to begin with the first person present, take off the "o" and replace it with the opposite vowel or "switch" the ending. Therefore:

"S" for switch and "S" for subjunctive.

After students have learned the regular forms, what about the irregulars? There are six verbs that cannot use the first person to form the present subjunctive. So we teach them to remember **DISHES.**

Dar ..... dé
Ir ..... vaya
Ser ..... sea
Haber ..... haya
Estar ..... esté
Saber ..... sepa

(In your kitchen, you probably have an unmatched set of dishes, which is a set of irregulars, just as in the subjunctive.)

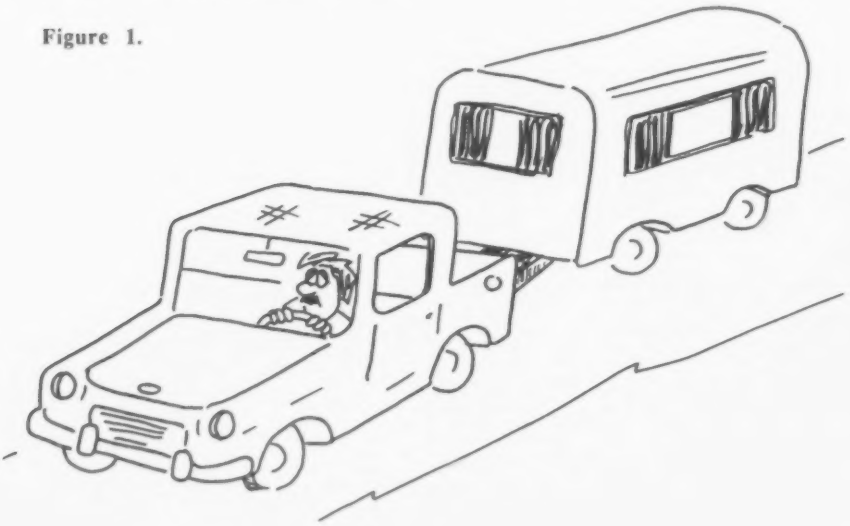
Now let's move on to the past subjunctive and the cheerleading forms. We begin with the third person of the preterite tense of the verb. Remove the *ron* and add the endings.

trabaja*ra*	**trabajá*ramos***
trabaja*ras*	**trabaja*rais***
trabaja*ra*	**trabaja*ran***

(Motions may be added to the true cheerleading effect.)

After the students have successfully learned the forms of the subjunctive, they must learn the many uses. Noun clauses can be taught by using an illustration of a car (the independent clause), a hitch (que), and a trailer (the dependent clause).

Figure 1.



If we add a lady to the car and a "Just Married" sign to the hood, this will lead us to the verbs and impersonal expressions that determine the use of the subjunctive in noun clauses. We use the word **WEDDING,** which one of our colleagues invented.

W — verbs of wanting or wishing
E — verbs of emotion
D — doubt or disbelief
D — denial
I — impersonal expressions (which overlap into other areas)
N — negation
G — grief or God (ojala is an if only)

Now let's go on to adverbial clauses. We have divided the adverbial conjunctions into three categories. The first category, or ESCAPA, shows conjunctions which always cause the subjunctive. The second category deals with LATCHED, or conjunctions which take the subjunctive only when indefinite future time or uncertainty is implied. The third category, or MA, includes the conjunctions which can use subjunctive or indicative depending upon the speaker's intent.

Figure 2. Conjunctions that ALWAYS require the subjunctive.

MAIN CLAUSE	CONJUNCTIONS		DEPENDENT CLAUSE
ANY TENSE	E — en caso de que	(in case that)	SUBJUNCTIVE
	S — sin que	(without)	
	C — con tal que	(provided that)	
	A — antes de que	(before)	
	P — para que	(in order that, so that)	
	A — a menos que	(unless)	

Figure 3. Conjunctions that take the subjunctive ONLY when the indefinite future time or uncertainty is implied. They will NOT be used with the past subjunctive.

MAIN CLAUSE	CONJUNCTIONS		DEPENDENT CLAUSE
PRESENT	L — luego que	(as soon as)	INDICATIVE — to show certainty or habitual action
	A — así que	(as soon as)	
	T — tan pronto como	(as soon as)	
	C — cuando	(when)	SUBJUNCTIVE — to show uncertainty
	H — hasta que	(until)	
FUTURE, COMMANDS	E — en cuanto	(as soon as)	SUBJUNCTIVE
	D — después de que	(after)	
ALL OTHER TENSES			INDICATIVE

Figure 4. Conjunctions that can be used with the subjunctive or indicative, depending on the meaning the speaker/writer wishes to convey. Using indicative will indicate certainty, while subjunctive will indicate uncertainty.

MAIN CLAUSE	CONJUNCTIONS		DEPENDENT CLAUSE
ALL TENSES	M — mientras (que)	(while)	INDICATIVE — certainty
	A — aunque	(although)	SUBJUNCTIVE — uncertainty

Stem-changing verbs

Verbs have always been a problem for many students. One area of difficulty is stem-changing verbs. Since the stems change in all persons but *nosotros* and *vosotros* in the present tense, we can use a shoe or an "L" to illustrate.

puedo	podemos
puedes	podéis
puede	pueden

Some verbs need an "a" before an infinitive and can be demonstrated by putting **BLT with Mayo** on the board or the overhead. These are verbs of Beginning (comenzar, empezar), Learning (aprender), Teaching (enseñar), and verbs of Motion (ir, venir.)

Ser and Estar

The uses of *ser* and *estar* are frequently difficult to remember. Since *estar* has fewer uses, it is easier to teach these first. A memory hook for first year classes might be, "How you feel and where you are always take the verb *estar*." Then, if you instruct the students to use *ser* in the other examples, they will have a basic comprehension of the two verbs. Other uses can later be added to this basic definition of *estar*.

Students often mix the present and the past participle. If you immediately teach the present participle as an "ndo" form, the two participles will not be confused.

Perfect tenses

The perfect tenses can be illustrated in several ways. Since forms of the verb *haber* plus the past participle are used, it is easiest to refer to the perfect tenses as the **H-DO** forms.

When conjugating the present perfect, if we look at the second person singular *has*, we can explain that the translation is *has* or have.

he	**hemos**
has	**habéis**
ha	**han**

The past perfect tense can be translated by reversing the "b" of *había* to *had*.

hab ía ..... had

Preterite and Imperfect

Students always find the differences between the preterite and the imperfect among the most difficult concepts in Spanish to understand. The imperfect forms cause few problems and the preterite irregular forms are just a matter of memorizing, but the application is a definite problem. When we teach the uses of the imperfect, we can help our students **DUWIT.**

D — description
U — used to
W — was, were, + ing
I — inside things (mental actions like saber, creer)
T — tener expressions and time.

For the most part, all other examples would fall into the preterite category.

Negatives

Teaching negatives can be a positive thing if you use a little imagination. *Nada* or nothing can be taught as "not a thing." *Algo* or something is "I'll go to the story for something." *Nadie* or no one refers to people and "nobody but people can yeah." (Boo! Hiss! You say? Just wait until you hear the giggles when the students remember these "groaners" during chapter tests.

Object pronouns

After the subjunctive and the preterite/imperfect, the object pronouns run a close third for most despised concept. How can one ever keep all of these pronouns separated? Maybe some memory hooks would help.

1. Objects of prepositions. Many of these pronouns borrow forms from the Spanish subject pronouns. The only two different forms exist in the first and second person singular. To help students remember:
   "Ti for tú and Mi for yo"

(Sing to the tune of "Tea for Two." A straw hat and cane are musts for this musical presentation.)

2. Direct and indirect objects. The first and second persons singular and plural share the same words in this category. But how does one remember that "lo, la" takes the place of a direct object while "le" is an indirect object pronoun? Possibly a chorus of "Lola" would help solve this problem. After learning the pronoun forms, the student must learn the word order. ¡Caray! What comes first? Wouldn't students love to get **RID** of pronouns?

Reflexive
Indirect
Direct

Thus we find a hookup to pronoun word order.

Demonstrative adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives can be painless if taught with the following rhyme:

This and these have the T's
That and those "no, no, no."

This rhyme is quick and easy, but it serves an important purpose—it distinguishes distance.

Vocabulary

Memory hooks are very important in the teaching of grammar. As we have seen, a silly phrase can help us to determine word order, or select an appropriate verb tense.

This same tactic will help increase vocabulary retention. Let's look at some different categories of words and determine which approach might be most appropriate.

1. Cognates.
   Every textbook or magazine has an abundance of cognates. We all spot "ceremonia, violencia, filmar, historia" and tend

to spend less time drilling because of the English-Spanish similarity. However, we must actively teach students to spot these words. We must encourage them to guess at meanings.

2. Inside clues.
   Sometimes English or Spanish clues are inside the vocabulary word in question. Therefore, "inside" memory hooks can help to improve retention.
   A) *pie* in *pie*rna (foot at the end of the leg)
   B) res*fria*do (one should rest when one has a cold)
   frío
   C) de*bajo* (short people can go "under" things)
3. Association words.
   Although there might not be a Spanish clue to meaning inside of these words, a teacher can bring them alive with just a little creativity.
   A) garganta — gargle
   B) mirar — look at oneself in the mirror
   C) vender — vending machines or vendors sell things.
   When first drilling this vocabulary, practice the memory hook along with the particular item.
4. First letter/initial sound.
   Overemphasizing a sound in the English translation can help students remember the Spanish.
   durante ——— durrrrring.
   The difference between *ustedes* and *ellos* seems to be a constant source of frustration.
   ***ustedes* begins with the letter "u"**
   It means *you*.
5. Rhythms.
   Different rhythms can be used in the teaching of vocabulary. When repeating a certain expression, one can create a hand-clapping, foot-stomping rhythm.
   darse cuenta de
   dar — se quen — ta de
   Often, only the rhythm needs to be presented to trigger recall of that particular vocabulary item.

6. Nonsense clues.
   Probably the most interesting, nonense clues are often the most lasting of memory hooks. Pick a word, any word, and invent a clue.
   sin embargo — It might be a *sin*, but *nevertheless*, in the *bar* we *go*.
   cuidad — Every morning Dad leaves to go to work in the *city*. I say to him, *"ci u dad.* ("See you, *Dad.")*

Groan! Groan! We agree, but we accept the groans as long as the vocabulary item is recalled.

In conclusion, as high school Spanish teachers, we have found these devices to be very effective tools in language learning. They help students retain grammatical concepts, verb conjugations and uses, and vocabulary items. These memory hooks, whether thought out in advance or spontaneously invented, add humor to the class. The teacher is "real" and the class focuses closely on what "silly" thing will be used next. Using memory devices in the classroom encourages the students to create and share their own memory clues. The development of this type of study skill will always be beneficial. Thus, in both language-specific and overall study skills, we have helped our students immensely.

8
Purpose Produces Proficiency:
Writing-Based Projects for An Integrated Curriculum

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Intensive university-level English as a second language (ESL) courses are primarily designed to prepare foreign students to enter American universities and compete successfully with American students, or perhaps to enable those sent to the U.S. by their companies to conduct business transactions in English. In either case, success depends basically on mastery of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in a second language, which is a formidable task for even the brightest student. The importance of reading and writing in a university classroom, combined with a lack of time and overabundance of material to be covered, often causes teachers to emphasize reading and writing to the near-exclusion of listening and speaking. Artifically segmenting the skills into four separate entities for the sake of instruction is neither pedagogically sound nor an efficient use of time. It also often puts the students—who, as will be demonstrated, view listening and speaking as paramount to their second language education—at cross-purposes with the instructor and the curriculum, thereby creating an unhealthy environment for optimum language learning by dampening the student's motivation, a major factor in second language acquisition (Izzo, p. 7). It is not enough to know what students need; what they want and what they perceive their needs to be must also be taken into account.

Consider the following remarks made by university-level ESL students about their difficulties with listening skills: "I can't understand what the other people say to me because they run their words together"; "I can understand you, teacher, but my Calculus teacher speaks so fast"; or "He says his words funny; he sounds like a cowboy." There are few ESL teachers who have not heard the observation: "Whenever I'm with

my friends and they laugh at a joke, I laugh too; even though I don't understand what they're laughing about, I'm too embarrassed to ask."

Having to speak in a second language often gives students a visibility that they would rather avoid, as witnessed in the following exchanges: "I went into McDonald's and asked for a vanilla milkshake. The person behind the counter kept saying 'Banana?' Finally, I had to point to it"; or "Everyone started to laugh when I asked for a sheet of paper. They thought that I was saying something bad."

Reading would seem to be a passive skill that usually only impacts in an academic situation, as expressed in a common student complaint: "It takes me so long to read assignments for my class that sometimes I give up. I know I could do the work if I had enough time." However, reading pervades all aspects of our lives, a fact made painfully apparent to one ESL student attempting a task most people take for granted: "I went to wash my car and I put in $1. The computer wrote the code and the directions, but I didn't understand it. After a while, there were three cars honking and I had to leave with my car dirty" (Evans, 1985).

Writing... The common perception is that this is one topic that most ESL students do not even care to discuss, much less participate in! An informal survey of ESL students and instructors was conducted at the International Language Institute of the University of South Florida in an attempt to confirm or refute this supposition. The student version asked two basic questions: (1) Place the following English skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in theiri order of importance; and (2) which skills do teachers think are most important? Of the students surveyed, 70 percent cited listening as the number one or two skill area of importance, and 80 percent named speaking as either number one or two. The figures for reading and writing were dramatically different, however, with 30 percent placing reading in the number one or two category, and only 20 percent answering that writing was of first or second importance.

When asked to identify the skills that teachers deemed most important, the answers were inversely proportional to those given for the previous question. The survey showed that only 30 percent of the students thought teachers saw listening as the number one or two skill. An equal number placed speaking first or second. In contrast, 60 percent of the students thought teachers placed reading as a number one or two skill, and a full 70 percent listed writing as the teachers' number one or two priority.

The students' perception that teachers place the greatest emphasis on the skills which students see as least important is, of itself, an interesting fact, confirming the original question of the importance given to writing by most students. However, the waters are further muddied by an informal survey given to a small sampling of teachers in which they were asked to rank the importance of listening, speaking, reading, and writing for second-language learners. Their answers paralleled those given by the students concerning importance of skills. Teachers ranked listening and speaking as either number one or two in importance, while reading and writing were ranked as numbers three and four.

An obvious question arising from this data, as informal as it may be, is why students think that teachers see reading and writing as most important when this does not seem to be the case. This goes back to the original observation that listening and speaking are de-emphasized because of the importance of reading and writing in a university classroom. How can this conflict of perceptions be resolved to create a curriculum that will provide for listening and speaking while motivating students to want to read, and most importantly, to take writing off their most-hated subject list?

It is not enough to tell students that writing is important and that they will just have to suffer through it if they want to do well in their university courses. Some will accept that and buckle down, but many will take the attitude that they will worry about it if and when the time comes. A major issue in teaching students to write is the need to make writing a meaningful activity, as vital a part of effective communication as speaking (Peyton, p. 1). In fact, several studies have actually linked speaking and writing by showing that the order of acquisition of almost a dozen structures observed in oral production are virtually identical to the use of the structures in natural writing (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, p. 211).

This, together with the issue of student motivation, brings us back to the notion of integrated activities which would provide a purpose for using language. From these would come the natural use of the four skills, minimizing the need to have separate, more artificial lessons to cover the skills to be taught. The following are suggestions of short-term and project-length activities which do this, as well as support the notion that purpose produces proficiency.

Cultural Exchange

This is a student-centered writing project first conceived by Carol Taylor of Florida State University for the purpose of gaining district support for the K-12 ESL program in which she was working in 1983 (Taylor, 1985). The concept, which utilizes an interview format for data collection, was applied to an advanced ESL reading and composition class at the University of South Florida with the purpose of reducing culture shock and advancing cultural understanding among the students at the International Language Institute. The universality of the goals, as well as the simplicity of the format, makes for a project easily adapted to most ESL classrooms.

As it was used at the University of South Florida, the project had ten steps:

1. Discussion of culture shock in terms of students' first experiences.
2. Students formed groups to write questions designed to elicit information about culture shock and cultural adjustment from other foreign students.
3. Students categorized questions under topic headings (i.e. first impressions, language problems, society/ family roles, etc.)
4. Students volunteered to work on one topic, which formed new groups according to the topic chosen.
5. Questions concerning their particular topic were compiled by students by surveying each other's original lists of questions.
6. Additional questions were written as deemed necessary by group.
7. Students conducted interviews with several foreign students from other classes, recording the students' countries and responses.
8. Groups reconvened to compile interview results, edit, and evaluate the need for more/fewer questions and/or responses. Additional interviews were conducted as necessary.
9. The final information was typed into computer and a print-out of the data was given to each group for final

proofreading, plus decision-making on the order of the categories in the body of the project.

10. Each group was responsible for either the cover design, acknowledgements, introduction, or table of contents.

Once all the components were prepared, they were printed out on stencils, copies were made, and the elements were collated and stapled. (Stencils were used because they looked better than dittos and were more economical than photocopying.)

The benefits of the project were many. Students were enthusiastically speaking, listening, reading, and—hard as it was to believe—even writing. The decision-making process and responsibility for a quality finished product belonged entirely to the students. The academic skills of classification, proofreading, editing, note-taking, and coherence were the obvious skills practiced; less obvious skills included the ability to express and understand rather abstract notions in a second language, cooperation for a common goal, and presentation of material with an audience in mind—an essential writing skill.

Daily News/People of Interest

The Daily News and People of Interest have several things in common. They are both designed to get students to either read a newspaper (school or city) or listen to the news (radio or television), whichever they feel most comfortable with. The reports, a combination of summary and commentary, are given in oral form in a five-minute presentation, plus in the written form of a one-page paper. As a report is being given, the other students in the class take notes, from which they will each write one good question to be used in an open-note quiz given later. After the student has finished giving the report, the other students are encouraged to ask questions for clarification or for additional information.

The Daily News and People of Interest differ in their content. The first must be a news item no more than three days old. The latter must be a person who has been in the news for any reason in the previous week.

Students volunteer for dates and one report is given each day until all the students have had an opportunity to speak. Then, the topic is changed and the rotation begins again.

The skills involved for both speaker and audience are speaking, listening, reading, writing, summarization, critical analysis, and note-taking. The students become very involved with the topics, which often seem to be chosen because they relate to the speaker's background in some way.

I Need a Job

This activity is a rather involved and lengthy simulation of the activity of job-hunting. For the first step, the teacher creates an imaginary company. For the purpose of illustration, the "Charisma International Clothing Corporation" will be used. The teacher writes all the positions of the company, divided between management and hourly employees, on slips of paper which the students will draw. For example, a class of fifteen students might have five vice-presidents and ten applicants for hourly positions. The positions available in the Charisma International Clothing Corporation might be in the five areas of marketing/sales, accounting/finance, design, public relations, and import/export.

According to the positions that the "applicants" draw, they will make up fictitious résumés stating their qualifications and previous job experience, together with cover letters to the appropriate vice-president. In the meantime, each vice-president will write up the requirements for the available position in his division.

Next, the vice-presidents will interview the applicants (there should be two or three) for their positions, then write up their recommendations for the president (the teacher). The president will call a staff meeting at which the recommendations are all reviewed, and the final decision is made on who should be hired. The vice-presidents are responsible for notifying each applicant in writing of the decision made, and those offered jobs must respond in writing to the vice-president, either accepting or rejecting the offer.

While this activity involves time and careful pre-planning on the part of the instructor, it is clear that the students become totally involved in a process that provides a realistic setting for purposeful use of all skill areas. This simulation, and others which are similarly constructed,

provide a forum for productive and responsive communication in oral as well as written form.

In conclusion, designing lessons which integrate the skill areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing is not only a more natural and realistic approach to language learning, but also provides that no skill area will be slighted. Furthermore, an integrated curriculum designed to be purposeful can stimulate students to read and write while allowing opportunities to develop the speaking and listening skills which students feel are an essential part of their second language education.

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9
Phonetics, the Basis for All Levels of Proficiency In French Pronunciation

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Dr. Higgins' splendid remark in "My Fair Lady" was not so far off the mark when he said "The French don't care what they do, actually, so long as they pronounce it correctly." Most of us who have had first-hand experience in France, can bear witness to the truth of at least the latter half of this statement. Of all the languages and peoples in the world, the French seem to care most about the imperfect oral rendering of their beautiful language.

Proficiency in pronunciation demands of us as foreign language teachers our greatest effort; first, in mastering the skills ourselves, and, thereafter, in perfecting them constantly in order to pass them on with maximum fidelity to our fledglings, our foreign language majors and our graduate students. The most recent and justly emphasized goal of the language proficiency testing concept meets the special needs and demands of today's world and deserves our re-evaluation of oral-aural techniques.

Any one of the non-initiated, looking retrospectively at the kaleidoscope of our foreign language methods over the past half century, might well label us the most capricious of the teaching species. During the 1930's and 40's we translated and wrote French almost exclusively; during the 1950's we began to speak a bit, but only in single sentence/question responses, usually prepared in advance. In the 1960's we allowed the pendulum to go full swing to the all-direct method, which dealt with memorized dialogues and left our students helpless to use the language unless they could reproduce to the letter the scenario of one of their rote dialogues, such as: "l'agent de police devant l'opéra qui donne une amende à un américain en cadillac jaune" (hardly an everyday encounter). It took until the 1970's for us to realize that all the skills: reading, writing, speaking and comprehending could function effectively

in no other way than through a team effort. All four skills had to progress at the same level. This is where we have been, or tried to be, until the idea of proficiency testing, now, in the mid-eighties, has encouraged us to give our students even greater oral-aural competency.

The emphasis upon communication skills had not really loomed up as a reality until the need presented itself. This has brought us through three major phases since the 1950's, from the World War II G.I., whose (usually unsuccessful) invitation of "Voulez-vous...?" to Sputnik's super-power spurt in the hope of catching up with the rest of the multilingual world, until, more recently, Senator Simon's chastizing and illuminating book, *The Tongue-tied American* (1980). Our present need is neither the G.I.'s quest for interpersonal communication, nor the defense of national prowess and pride, but, rather along with trying to know another culture and its civilization, to gain a financial edge in the ever-growing commercial realization that the world will not always revolve around the American dollar and that the successful salesman must speak the customer's language.

The serious flaw in the system to which we are now seemingly enslaved surfaces in our failure to realize that, of all of the skills, the oral-aural will demand three times the time for perfection than the other two combined. Nothing in our curriculum is geared to the absolutely essential and time-consuming coaching of these skills. We have a syllabus to follow; we must finish the text; we must get to the subjunctive by April. We undertake all this so that our students can make a good showing in regional or national contests, most of which are written exams where any oral-aural component measures at best the students' comprehension only. I also teach Latin, and I can recall the annual family joke at the Thanksgiving table, asking if I thought I would get Hannibal across the Alps by Christmas that year. Usually I did, but then, this is possible in Latin, a language where the emphasis is upon reading, translation, and interpretation. We French teachers need to realize and convince our supervisors that more time must be given in the initial stages of French study to the development of acceptable pronunciation and comprehension skills.

How shall we go about accomplishing this goal? How do we start, and when do we stop drilling the oral-aural skills? We start from day one and we never stop, not even at the graduate and post-doctoral levels. What is the technique and the tool which agurs best for perfecting pronunciation? Phonetic symbols! Yes, of all archaic sounding things, phonetic symbols. Our American students need ear

training before they try to say anything more than the most rudimentary sentences in French. They must be able to distinguish between "peur" and "deux" and in the nasal sounds between "tant" and "ton."

Ironically, it was my Lyric Diction class which convinced me of the validity of this phonetic initiation for teaching pronunciation. This special course, which is now required of all voice majors in our School of Music, is designed to teach voice majors the correct pronunciation for singing French, German, Italian, and Latin. Granted, the voice majors already have trained ears, but most of them have not a clue as to what they are saying in these languages. Theirs is the rigorous task of being able to reproduce these phonetic symbols across the four-language spectrum when they hear them spoken or sung, and to transcribe the varied orthographic combinations of these four languages into both oral sounds and phonetic symbols on sight. The amazing truth is that these students, once initiated into the special language of phonetic symbols, are able on a final examination not only to sing and comprehend the symbols but to pronounce very faithfully sight passages from all four languages according to the particular rules for singing in each. It was a revelation to me. If these students can master the pronunciation of four languages in one three-month quarter, surely our students with single emphasis should be able to master French pronunciation.

There is a chart that I have prepared (see Appendix) and use as the initial study for the three levels of French phonetics and diction I teach: a) Freshman-sophomore, b) junior-senior, and c) graduate. The difference is the time it takes for the aural-oral mastery of the chart: several weeks for the first group, one week for the second, and two days for the third. We, the students and I, then have a "secret-sound-language," where only the most frequent orthographic combinations listed on the chart are emphasized. It is when one gets into the different textbooks, which are clearly of three different levels, that the details and more obscure situations can be encountered, along with the ever-present lists of exceptions and snags for Anglo-Saxons. Before presenting the chart, however, the thirty-seven basic phonetic symbols thereon could be drilled in the six following sentences, or those of your choice, until the ear training has been thoroughly presented. Most of these sentences would actually appear in the first few lessons of an elementary textbook, but they could be introduced separately and memorized for content first, then, more especially, for ear training and for learning the comparable phonetic symbols for each sound. Thereafter the students should practice with words they do not know, in order to tune and verify their

oral perception. For each of the six sentences the phonetic transcription is given and comparable numbers for the underlined symbols as listed on the chart in the Appendix.

Figure 1.

Phonetic symbols and numbers in parentheses correspond to the chart in Appendix A.

1. A quelle heure va - t - il au travail?
   (akɛlœrvatilotravaj) (1, 27, 2, 34, 10, 35, 21, 5, 25, 4, 7, 30)

2. Comment allez - vous?
   (kɔmatalevu) (6, 36, 13, 3, 8)

3. C'est lui qui veut plus d'argent.
   (sɛlɥkivøplydarʒã) (18, 31, 9, 26 11, 24, 20)

4. Le champagne français est un bon vin blanc.
   (ləʃãpaŋfrãsɛɛtœ̃bõvɛ̃blã) (19, 32, 22, 16, 23, 14, 15)

5. Voici les chaises dans les garages de mon hôtel.
   (vwasileʃɛzdãlegarazdəmõnotɛl) (29, 17, 28, 12, 37)

6. Les haricots verts sont délicieux.
   (leharikovɛrsõdelisjø) (33)

Once the students are able to pronounce and comprehend these six sentences, the chart could be distributed to them for thorough study. One can begin by emphasizing the only four consonants normally

pronounced in French at the end of a word, found in the word **CAREFUL.** Then one could show the students why we use a vowel triangle. By making the students aware of the gradual closing of both throat and lips on the closed vowels and opening of both for open vowels. This is a good way to make the students cognizant of the vocal and labial mechanisms involved. If one stresses the three consonants early on which Anglo-Saxons tend to nazalize, "l, r, m, and n" combining them with the various vowel sounds already learned, they gain additional practice. Students must be encouraged to pronounce the vowels which accompany these troublesome consonants perfectly and to release the vowel sound before pronouncing the consonant; if this can be accomplished during initial study, a thousand future errors could be avoided. One then does his/her best with the French "u," telling them to say "i" like "police" in the throat while rounding the lips to a tight whistle, or to pretend to be blowing out a candle, as Professor Bras suggests in her text *Your Guide to French Pronunciation*. This is also the time to give the students the simple rules for the mute "e," such as in initial, medial, and final syllables and the rule of two and three consonants; how not to "explode" on the consonants "b, d, t, and p"; along with the study of aspirate "h's"; these subjects are discussed thoroughly in Dr. Bras' text also. This system does work!

Through these prefactory remarks I am attempting to glean disciples from among French teachers at all levels who wish to perfect the student's pronunciation from the very first class. For my freshman-sophomore level, which would correspond to three or in some cases four years of high school study, I would recommend Professor Monique Bras' text, *Your Guide to French Pronunciation*. This is perhaps the finest book of its kind. The explanations are in English but all of the examples—some of the best I have ever seen—are written in French along with phonetic transcriptions. This text is published by Larousse and Company, Inc., 572 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York (ISBN-2-03-043101-X).

For my junior-senior class, I use *D'Accord* by Carduner and Hagiwara published by John Wiley and Sons. And for the graduate course, *Phonétique et diction françaises* by Marguerite Peyrollaz, Imprimerie Larousse. The lyric diction course has been based on John Moriarty's book, *Diction: Italian, Latin, French, German ... the Sounds and 81 Exercises for Singing Them*, E.C. Shirmer Music Company. I call Dr. Bras' technique (1) the "flèche" or "arrow" technique; the method in D'Accord (2), the "boîte" or "box" technique; Mme Peyrollaz'

system (3) the "onde" or "wave" technique and Moriarty's use (4) as simply "phonetic comparison", since the musical scores dictate both stress and intonation patterns in these sentences.

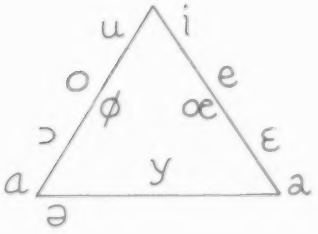
When at last our potential French students have acquired an acceptable pronunciation, can comprehend a native speaker at a moderate rate of speaking, can write coherent and grammatically correct sentences and paragraphs all with equal facility, they have yet another dimension to add. They must learn that French scholars, businessmen, engineers, and civil servants alike will have had a thorough grounding in their own literature, civilization, and culture. And, furthermore, we must assure them that the French will not be "talking shop" at table or at parties but, rather, practicing a virtually lost talent in America, the art of conversation. If they wish to communicate on a comparable level, they, too, will need to have a knowledge of their own as well as French literature, civilization, and culture. The students who will succeed in our ever-more-competitive and enlarging field of foreign languages will need first an excellent command of the basic four skills and then, thereafter, a fifth dimension of background knowledge and experience in the francophone world.

We, their teachers, must accept the difficult role of virtual miracle workers, and of role models as the embodiment of this five-phased gamut, in order to serve as the vehicle for our students' acquisition of such a multifaceted expertise as the French language, culture, and civilization.

Appendix

Les Symboles Phonétiques

voyelles fermées



voyelles ouvertes

Only Final Consonants Pronounced: C A R E F U L

I. Les Voyelles ouvertes:

	Symbole	Guide	L'Orthographe en Français et Exemples	
1.	ɑ	"has"	a	(1st letter) [avec, assez]
			a	[la table]
			à	[voilà]
			e	(before "mm") [femme]
2.	ɛ	"met"	e	(in a syllable before a pronounced consonant) [belle]
			ê	[être]
			e	(in final et) [sonnet]
			è	[père]
			ei	
			ai	(except 1st person future and passé simple endings in "ai") [maison]

3.	e	.... "they"	é	[été]
			ai	(in verb endings) [je ferai]
			ez	[allez]
			er	[aller]
			"et"	(the word *and*)
			ed	[sediment]
4.	i	.... "police"	i	[livre]
			y	[stylo]
			î	[île] *isle, hospital, forest, mast, août

II. Les Voyelles fermées:

5.	a	.... "father"	a	(before final "ille") [paille]
			a	(before final "s") [pas]
			a	(before "z" sound) [gaz, base]
			a	(before "ss") [classe]
			â	[âme]
			oi	[moi]
6.	ɔ	.... "come"	o	[homme, professeur, école, donner]
7.	o	.... "so"	ô	[côte]
			o	(final letter) [véto]
			o	(before "z" sound) [rose, chose]
			o	(before final silent consonant)[canot]
			au/aux	[animaux]
			eau/eaux	[beaux]
			aô	[Saône]
8.	u	.... "soup"	ou	[ou, où]
			oû	[goût]
9.	ø	.... "early"	eu	(last sound in word) [deux]
			eu	(followed by "z" sound) [heureuse]
10.	œ	.... "learn"	eu	(before a pronounced consonant) [leur]
			oeu	[boeuf]

11. y .... u [une, bu, eut]

12. ə .... "th'boy" ..... e (without an accent mark at the end of a syllable) [1e, regarder, petit] ("e" muet)

III. Les Voyelles Nasales:

13. ɑ̃ .... aon [paon]
aen [Caen]
en [lente]
an [ans]
am [ambre]
em [temps]

14. õ .... on [bon]
om [nombre]

15. ɛ̃ .... in [instant] *innocent, inimaginable
ain [main]
ein [peindre]
im [important] *immense, imitation
aim [faim]
eim [esseim]
en (after "i" in same syllable) [bien]

16. œ̃ .... um [parfum]
un [un]

IV. Les Consonnes Sifflantes:

17. z .... "tease" ..... s (between two vowels) [chaise]
z [gaz]

18. s .... "so" ..... s (except between two vowels) [sous]
ss [poisson]
ç [garçon]
c (before "e," "i," "y") [ceci, Nancy]

19. ʃ .... "wash" ..... ch [chien]

20. ʒ .... "mirage" ..... j [joli]
g (before "e," "i") [large, religion]

21. v .... "very" ..... v [vous]

22. f .... "fun" ..... f [fils]
ph [phrase]

V. Les Consonnes Explosives:

23. b (p) .... b [bas]

24. d .... d [devant]

25. t (d) .... t [tout]

26. p (b).... ..... p [pas]

27. k .... qu [qui]
k [kaki]
c (followed by "a," "o," "u") [concert, cancan, cuve]

28. ɡ .... "get" ..... g (followed by "a," "o," "u") [gaz, goût, fugue]

VI. Les Semi-Consonnes:

29. w .... "wa" [watch]... oi [moi]
ou + vowel [oui]

30. j .... "y" [you]..... i (before a pronounced vowel) [question]
ll (after "i") [feuille, famille]
ill (after a vowel) [grenouille]
il (final after vowel) [vitrail, détail]
y (before pronounced vowel) [payer]

31. ɥ .... ui [bruit, huit]

32. ɲ .... "ni" [union].... gn [digne, campagne]

VII. Consonne supplementaire:

33. h .... h [aha]

34. l .... l [leur]

35. r .... r [rue]

36. m .... "more"..... m [moi]

37. n .... "note"..... n [non]

VIII. L'Alphabet Phonétique

Symboles	Exemples	Symboles	Exemples
:	allongement (sign of length)*	ŋ	digne
ɑ	patte	o	beau, notre
a	pas	ɔ	note
ɑ̃	tant	õ	bon
b	beau	œ	neuf
d	dame	œ̃	un
e	été	ø	peu
ɛ	près	r	drap
ɛ̃	pin	s	si
ə	le	ʃ	chou
f	fort	t	ta
g	gant, longue	u	tout
h	aha	y	tu
i	ici	ɥ	huile
j	hier	v	va
k	car, roc, que	w	oui
l	la	z	zone
m	mot	ʒ	je, rouge
n	ni	p	par

* : = allongement du son [première = prəmjɛ:r]

10
Implications of Brain Hemisphere Research for Second Language Teaching And Learning

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One hears much about the brain, but how does the organ work?

There are anywhere from ten to one hundred billion neurons or cells in the brain, but no one really knows their function; they are unpredictable. However, both Kornhuber (1974) and Pribram (1971) found that willed intent was programmed throughout the brain, but, for Restak (1985), it is difficult to understand a concept that appears to be at the same time localized and in both hemispheres of the brain. It is a mystery.

This brings up the question as to how the brain handles two languages as opposed to one language. Albert and Obler (1978) wrote that "knowledge of multiple languages has anatomical consequences" which, according to some researchers, "may find expression in specifically bilingual strategies for language processing, perhaps even differing perceptions of the universe" (cited in Benderly, 1981, p. 9).

Ojemann & Whitaker found that "within the center of the language area of each subject (in their study) there appeared to be sites common to both languages (English—Spanish and English—Dutch bilinguals)" but "peripheral to this... are sites with differential organization of the two languages. There is a tendency for those sites concerned with a given language to cluster together." (cited in Benderly, p. 10). They speculated that perhaps learning an L2 takes "a large number of neurons located over a wide area" and that with growing familiarity, this number may shrink.

For the bilingual, every linguistic situation is a choice, every possibility has a twin in the background.

Vaid and Lambert (1979) find that bilinguals appear to be more able to distinguish among auditory and visual stimuli, e.g., their greater ability to distinguish figure from ground (i.e., to pick an object in a picture out of its background). They believe that bilinguals are "more field-independent" (cited in Benderly, p. 10).

It seems to them that very early bilinguals use left hemisphere strategies to understanding while later bilinguals use those more closely related to the right hemisphere. They add that "early childhood bilinguals analyze works at the level of meaning..." while "later bilinguals seem to judge more on the basis of physical features of the words, like melody or combination of sounds" (cited in Benderly, 1981, p. 10).

Ben-Zeev writes that early bilinguals (infancy or early childhood) have "been confronted early in life with a verbal environment of unusual complexity, in which underlying order is difficult to discover because the rules belong to two structures, not one. Result: they seem to have developed special facility for seeking out rules and for determining which are required by the circumstances" (cited in Benderly, p. 10).

She found that elementary school pupils fluent in both Hebrew and English were quicker and subtler when analyzing verbal material and more adept at seeking out the underlying dimensions of the patterns they confront" (cited in Benderly, p. 10). Studies are suggesting that multilingual children stabilize their lateralization for language earlier than other children.

Language involves the process of (a) receiving and understanding messages, and (b) sending messages. However, different languages might present quite different sorts of stimuli and different languages show more left brain involvement, others more right brain involvement.

Some researchers assert that the order of learning does not have a differentiating effect; others believe the opposite, e.g., Ten Houten et al. suggest "that socially subordinate individuals generally show greater right-hemisphere involvement" (cited in Benderly, p. 12). Yet others report that bilinguals generally appear to process both their languages on the same side.

For Obler (1980), it now appears that "particularly in the early stages of language learning there's more right hemisphere involvement than you'd expect" (cited in Benderly, p. 9), and the right hemisphere remains surprisingly important even after an L2 is completely mastered.

Because of psychological factors and differences in learning situations, individuals vary in the time it takes to attain a given level of

proficiency; they also fossilize in their second language at different levels and for different reasons. This suggests that more attention must be given to individual language experiences, if the recency of acquisition hypothesis is to be verified.

Research indicates that "foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition (of second languages) from mere exposure...seems to disappear after this age" (Lenneberg, 1967, p. 176).

Krashen (1981) states that, at formal operations, the adolescent becomes an abstract thinker and is able to "reflect on the rules he possesses and on his thoughts (*Developmental Psychology Today*, 1971, p. 336), and can "deal with problems in which many factors operate at the same time" (Elkind, 1979, p. 66).

In de Lorenzo's (1980) study investigating whether Mexican Americans have a different cerebral specialization for native language than for second language as measured by visual shift, it was found that, when the students answered in English, they shifted to the right while they shifted to the left when answering in Spanish. If there is a different cerebral arrangement for each language, there are implications for FL teaching: the relation between cerebral arrangement and cognitive style entails considerations concerning methods of instruction, grouping, reward systems, and assessment.

In most normal children growth occurs rapidly during perhaps a six-month period some time between the ages 2 and 4, 6 and 8, 10 and 12 plus, and 14 and 16 plus (Sylwester, 1982, p. 89). During each growth period the brain creates and insulates the neural extensions and connections needed to perform new cognitive functions.

"Reading, writing, speaking and problem solving involve activity in the angular gyrus (an area of the left hemisphere)—as do show-and-tell time, manipulative arithmetic, field trips, and other activities that involve the combining of sensory data" (p. 92).

It is well to remember that in the 10-12 year growth period brain growth of girls is three times that of boys. Periods of nongrowth are consolidation periods for both sexes. Since there is growth during the summer, what are the implications for individualizing instruction, reading readiness, instruction as related to cognitive levels?

Taylor (1978) and Seliger (1978) discuss critical periods based on the maturation of the brain, and each period is ready for the acquisition of one aspect of language. Brown and Jaffe (1975) feel that

lateralization is a continuing process of specialization. Seliger (1978) says:

> Because localization does not take place at once, but affects different aspects of language at different periods of life, one would expect a different timetable to evolve in terms of different language abilities. That is, there would be many critical periods, successive and perhaps overlapping, lasting probably throughout one's lifetime, each closing off different acquisition abilities. This may explain why phonology is acquired beyond the age five cutoff for lateralization but not much beyond the onset of puberty in most cases, and why other aspects of the language system, at least in some form, are acquirable throughout most of life. (p. 16)

The critical period hypothesis has been questioned and several studies show that older learners are more proficient at second language learning and that their cognitive maturity is an asset. (Ausubel, 1964; Taylor, 1974).

There is much to learn about the brain, how it works, and its implications, but the literature and research, although contradictory in many respects, seem to indicate that (a) lateralization takes place anywhere from about age five to puberty; (b) both hemispheres are involved in the learning of languages, but there is no consensus as to the exact role of each, especially that of the right hemisphere; (c) it is difficult to learn the accent of a new language after about age fifteen; (d) older learners are quicker language learners, but younger learners come to equal their proficiency; and (e) each hemisphere does a difficult job. For the latter, Krashen, (1981) comes up with the following:

Table 1

FUNCTIONS OF THE TWO HEMISPHERES

Left Hemisphere	Right Hemisphere
Language	Spatial relations
Time-related functions	"Gestalt" perception Part-to-whole judgments
"Propositional" thought	Music
	"Appositional" thought (p. 70)

Genesee's (1982) experimental evidence suggests that there may be greater right hemisphere involvement in the bilingual's language processing when acquiring the second language late relative to the L1 and also in bilinguals who learn their L2 in informal contexts.

Among scientists there appears to be general agreement that the left half of the brain controls language in about 95 percent of the right-handed people and about two-thirds of all left-handed people (Finn, 1983). For the remainder of the people, claims, counter-claims, theories, and hunches (Douglass, p. 24).

There is much speculation as to what each hemisphere specializes in, usually described as modes of consciousness, contrasting qualities, or styles. Each has special thinking characteristics. They don't approach life in the same way, yet both hemispheres use high-level cognitive modes.

Table 2

CONTRASTING QUALITIES

Rational Convergent Sequential Logical Analytic } Lawyer A Student	Metaphoric Divergent Random Intuitive Synthetic } Free-spirited artist
Field Independent Works more on his own More competitive Keeps certain distance from teacher	Field Dependent Likes to work with others More sensitive to feelings and opinions Closer to the teacher
Western Tendency to be active, To try to influence the environment, To take charge	Eastern More receptive to environment
Linear Part-to-whole	Holistic Involves the whole picture first
Symbolic Letters & numbers (essential in L2 learning)	Concrete Direct experiences (doing, feeling, moving)
Verbal Words	Visuospatial Images and spatial awareness

Source: Douglass, 1984, p. 24.

Research has shown that (a) the hemispheres each represent a separate consciousness, (b) there is lateralization of functions, and (c) there is plasticity of the brain.

There is a close working relationship between the halves since the hemisphere best suited to the task at hand takes over smoothly.

In other words, it appears that each hemisphere has special talents and therefore the one best qualified to answer a question takes charge. Most people switch between the two, but there are some who leave such a degree of lateralization that they may use the wrong half, thus, may have the right answers but will not be able to state how they arrive at them.

Frankly, the distinction between the two is far from resolved, as each person seems to show only a preference in the style used.

My thinking, along with many others, is that we perhaps have been spending too much time attempting to identify right-versus left-trained students, which is a difficult task; why not, as Douglass (1984) postulates, "try to make our teaching methods more right-brained in approach.... This would mean tapping the intuitive, creative, affective aspect of every learner, regardless of so-called dominance. A complete education should stress aesthetic/synthetic thinking as well as verbal/analytic thinking." (p. 26)

Our task is to become more aware of the capability of the right brain and come to respect intuition and nonverbal thinking more. Suggestopedia and the TPR tap the right brain. Visualization must be encouraged as it is an excellent means to expand memory (vocabulary learning). Good results are being had through the use of songs, dances, poetry (Douglass, p. 26).

I do believe that if the right brain is stimulated, it will reinforce learning and provide the student with a variety of experiences from which to draw. Finally, the more we recognize the many ways suggested as legitimate forms of learning, there will be better and more learning.

When Roger Sperry, a recent Nobel prizewinner, discovered about how the brain works may affect our conduct in the teaching of foreign languages, more than that, it may influence us to rewrite our textbooks, and that is "that although both hemispheres of the brain appear to be almost identical in structure, different areas of the brain seem to be specialized to do particular things...each hemisphere is an independent brain that speaks a different language. It is as if one hemisphere speaks English and the other can communicate only in the sign language of the deaf." (Asher, 1982, p. 8)

The literature shows some general agreement that the right hemisphere seems to prefer an intuitive kind of thinking, which leads to

an early conclusion without going through the steps of the left hemisphere; it does not get bogged down, which frequently leads the individual to something creative as in art, drama, music.

Guiora et al. (1983), in their research, found a correlation between the measure of hemisphere efficiency and approximation of native-like pronunciation. Further, the right hemispheric activity can predict the quality of pronunciation in a foreign language.

The right hemisphere seems to perceive the world with essential different emotional views than the left; it also appears to add its own emotional dimension transposing what is perceived as something more horrible and more unpleasant than reality (S. J. Dimond, Linda Farrington, and Peter Johnson (1976), pp. 690-92).

There is some evidence that it may be able to process concrete nouns (White, 1961; Basser, 1962, Krashen, 1973; Dennis and Kohn, 1975; Dennis and Whitaker, 1976; Dennis, 1980) and has the capacity to comprehend concrete nouns (Obler, 1980; Krashen and Scarcella, 1978).

Dennis suggests that "the process by which words become attached to visual arrays is mediated...perhaps more efficiently by the right (cited in Schneiderman and Wesche, 1983, p. 170).

It appears that the language-related capacities of the right hemisphere do play, at least initially, an important role in L1 acquisition; after this, it may be called on in special circumstances, such as serious left hemisphere damage or acquiring another language (Schneiderman and Wesche, 1983, p. 164).

"That the right hemisphere may indeed be essential to second language acquisition is...supported by a study of individuals with intact first language skills and high verbal IQs who suffered severe damage restricted to the right hemisphere in early childhood. These individuals later experienced severe difficulties in acquiring a second language" (H. Teuber and R. Rudel, cited in Obler, 1980).

Since youngsters have recently utilized the right hemisphere language acquisition strategies, it seems likely that they resort to them for performing certain second language tasks.

Wonder and Donovan (1984) list some of the right hemisphere skills: intuitive, spontaneous, emotional, nonverbal, visual, artistic, wholistic, playful, diffuse, symbolic, physical, factors which are nondominant, but "cultures that give preference to mystical, intuitive, intangible, and artistic values would be right dominant" (p. 160).

So, the right brain shows its capability in a rather wide range of performance ability and more adept with certain functions as opposed to others. Zaidel (1973) reports that:

1. Right hemisphere comprehension is considerably superior to right hemisphere speech.
2. The right hemisphere possesses an understanding of certain semantic relations.
3. At the word level, the right hemisphere possesses a surprisingly rich auditory comprehension lexicon, especially of high frequency concrete items, although it can deal with more abstract words to some extent.
4. Right hemisphere phonetic and syntactic abilities, however, appear to be quite inferior to the left hemisphere.
5. The right hemisphere does, however, have some degree of syntactic competence. Although inferior to the left, the right hemisphere can comprehend a variety of syntactic classes, including verbs, can perform some transformations, and can understand some grammatical relations. (cited in Galloway and Krashen, 1980, p. 75)

Zaidel further states that "right hemisphere syntactic comprehension is optimal in contextually rich and semantically redundant situations. In general, right hemisphere linguistic performance deteriorates and is seriously impaired relative to left hemisphere performance when stimulus complexity is introduced by such factors as abstractness, length, word order, lack of redundancy, and decreasing frequency, and when excessive demands are placed on detailed analysis and the apparent limited short-term visual and auditory memory of the right hemisphere" (cited in Galloway and Krashen, 1980, p. 78).

The human brain with its limitless capacity and potential as an information processor can be taught ways to improve it. For example, young children's mental development dramatically increased by enriching environments. It is also suggested that a well-balanced diet, exercise, and mental challenges are the best way to get the most from your brain.

Wonder and Donovan (1984) suggest left to right activities such as the following:

1. Doodling, drawing, printing
2. Singing rounds, humming, recalling, joking, and chuckling
3. Daydreaming
4. Making eye contact with others to feel their point of view
5. Relating to someone or something you know or have experienced
6. Being aware of the colors, space, aromas, sounds, emotions around you
7. Seeing the whole situation, how each person and element is related (p. 163).

In summary, much research has been done on the brain and many of its findings are seen as inconclusive, especially as related to L2 learning. The result is that there is still much unknown, therefore, much further research is needed. However, it can be said that there is some general thinking that the left hemisphere is more active in the language area and that the right hemisphere may be somewhat involved, but there is no consensus as to the exact role of each. The result has been much speculation as to the functions and contrastive qualities of each hemisphere as is evidenced by the many lists which have appeared in various publications.

Research findings on the right and left hemisphere of the brain and their capability to do specialized things or to complement each other should have, if properly utilized, an impact on and strong implications for a new, revised look at language teaching and learning as well as curriculum, textbooks, and materials.

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11
Listening Skill Development Through Massive Comprehensible Input

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Listening comprehension in the foreign language (FL) classroom is an important but elusive goal. Teachers have been talking about it for years, but they have not been sure how to put it in place as something attainable. Our efforts are perhaps best likened to stabs in the dark.

One common strategy is to read a selection aloud and then to ask questions about its contents, an activity which might last some five minutes. A lesson of such duration is better than nothing, but its resulting gains in listening skill development is expected to be severely limited. A more widespread practice is not to plan specific listening lessons at all, but to rely on sporadic teacher talk, usually to elicit a show of students' grammar knowledge. Such talk, often interspersed with utterances in the native language (NL), fails to provide listening practice of a sustained nature.

A contributing factor to this unhappy state of affairs may be our reluctance to come to grips with how much of the FL should be used. I suspect that fundamental to the development of the listening skill, since daily contact time with learners is so limited, is to prioritize use of the FL, the implementation of which will surely require strategic planning. Foundational to that planning will be sustained talk in the FL by the teacher. This means that it will eliminate jumping back and forth between FL and NL, a phenomenon which is not uncommon in secondary school and college FL classrooms. Such intralanguage use tells students it is not important to listen when the FL is spoken since the teacher will probably repeat the utterance in the NL. Furthermore, it places few constraints on the teacher to make his or her talk comprehensible.

A second and associated cause of extensive NL use is a grammar-oriented syllabus in which grammar-rule talk is central. Some teachers, including myself, have tried to explain grammar in the FL, but with only minor success, since grammar talk necessitates a great deal of abstract language. There are ways to impart grammar knowledge without devoting great portions of classroom time to grammar analysis.

We should be reminded of yet other reasons for avoiding use of the NL. It amounts to that much less time students can listen in the FL. In other words, students learn what they do. If they are to develop skill in listening, they must listen a lot.

NL use has other negative effects. It encourages translation, which hinders students from learning to think in the FL. It likewise encourages the belief that the FL corresponds to the NL, encouraging students to misuse the new language when trying to speak or write. Perhaps more important is that use of the NL wields a negative effect on students' perception of the utility of the course, which emanates from an implicit, or even explicit, teaching philosophy that students, if they will learn the basics (usually implying that they need to enroll in the next course or two) will *later* be able to undergo instruction totally in the FL. It is a futuristic philosophy, which is convenient for taking the pressure off of oneself to deal with instruction in the FL. My experience is that such future prediction or promises to students seldom becomes reality because it is based on the requirement that the students, not the teacher, be responsible for language acquisition.

How then might the teacher proceed? Recognizing the need to provide input, the teacher will design content which is built around caretaker speech (talk characteristic of the way mothers speak to their young children), on which Krashen (1982) so ably reminds us. Caretaker speech contains two important ingredients: linguistic and extralinguistic support.

A number of verbal manipulations characterize **linguistic supports.**

1. **Simple vocabulary.** With beginning learners, *shoe* does the job better than *footwear,* and *take off* is preferable to *remove.*

2. **Simple syntax.** Referring to students and the colors of their clothes, a teacher avoids complex syntax by saying, *Mary's wearing the blue blouse,* rather than *Mary's the one who is wearing the blue blouse.*

3. **Repetitions.** Generous repetition of a key word helps the listener focus on the sound of that word. It is not uncommon to hear a mother talking to her young child about a live kitten. *Look at the kitty. Here kitty. Nice kitty. Touch the kitty. Kitty's soft. Hold the kitty? Kitty's nice.*

4. **Short utterance.** Short, often incomplete, utterances help make speech understandable to beginners. On a very elementary level (as in #3 above), utterances are extremely brief. At a slightly more advanced stage might be heard: *Mommy'll wipe your face. Make it clean,* which is easier for the developing language learner to grasp than is *Mommy'll wipe your face to clean off all the food stuck on it.*

5. **Pronoun restriction.** Use of names (e.g., Mommy, Teddy) initially facilitates reception rather than *I, he,* etc.

6. **Exaggerated spacing.** Longer-than-normal pauses between phrases and clauses are a natural characteristic of caretaker speech. Exaggerated spacing involved in speech directed to a two-year old, for example, might be represented with slashes as follows: Look at /this/It's a cookie/Yum/Isn't it nice/Mommy baked it/for Billy. In contrast, try reducing the spacing to that of normal adult speech and see what kind of reaction you get from the child in return.

7. **Slowed speech.** Beginning FL students, like young NL learners, require a slow-down in speech at times. Caretakers perceive when this is necessary, but they are careful to make the reductions in speed temporary. If habitual, slowed speech could inhibit one ultimately from learning to listen successfully at normal speed.

8. **Exaggerated intonation.** An unusual degree of stress is often used to call attention to key words. In the FL classroom, such emphasis can be used effectively to convey the meaning of interrogatives (e.g., Who? How many?). When used in context, and when given exaggerated stress, interrogative words are easily understood.

9. **Sentence break-up.** Somewhat reminiscent of the backward build-up technique of audiolingualism, sentences might be

temporarily broken for initial comprehension (e.g., I have money/in my wallet).

Extralinguistic supports are somewhat different from linguistic aids. They involve the use of such things as motor activity, concrete objects, realia, (e.g., pictures, posters, maps), the chalkboard, and dramatization. Their combined use with linguistic supports are crucial in helping students understand the oral message.

We turn our attention now to content. Some sample content in barest form, is offered below. To be presented effectively it is to be spoken with generous amounts of linguistic and extralinguistic supports as have been explained above.

Theme: A Wallet
(Time required: approximately 20 minutes)

I have a wallet. It's my wallet. What color is it? It's black (refer to other black objects).

I have dollars in my wallet (holding wallet open to display dollars). I take out the dollars. How many? How many dollars do I take out? Let's count! 1,2,3,4,5. How Many? Five. I have $5.

I have $5 in my hand. I put the dollars in my pocket. How many dollars do I put there? Let's count! 1,2,3,4,5. $5. I put $5 in my pocket.

Now I put my hand in my pocket. I take out the dollars. How many dollars? Let's count! 1,2,3,4,5. $5. I have $5.

What's your name? (Teacher pointing to himself = "TED") What's your name (To student)? Do you have a wallet? Yes, *(name of student)* has a wallet. (or, No, ... doesn't). Take it out! Ah, it's (black). Like the teacher's. (REPEAT WITH OTHER STUDENTS UNTIL FIVE DIFFERENT COLORS ARE USED.)

Who has a red wallet? Right. ..... has a red one. (REPEAT WITH ALL FIVE COLORS)

Let's count the colors! Black—1 color. Brown—2 colors. Etc.

Do you have dollars in your wallet? Yes, *(Name of student)* does. (or, No, ... doesn't). Take out $1. Give it to me. Class, I have $1 in my hand (DO WITH FOUR OTHERS)

Now I have $5. Should I put the dollars in my wallet? No, they're not my dollars. Should I put the dollars in my pocket? No, they're not my dollars. Whose dollars is this? Your dollar? Yes, it's

(*name of student*)'s. Take it. Put it in your wallet. (REPEAT WITH THE OTHER FOUR DOLLARS).

With proper additions of linguistic and extralinguistic supports, this listening content is made completely comprehensible. Furthermore, it is fun for the students, and it is non-anxiety producing in that it demands little or no student speech in the FL, yet, a great deal of learning takes place phonologically, lexically, morphologically and syntactically. For example, nouns (e.g., numbers, wallet, pocket, hand), verbs (e.g., have, take out, put), and adjectives (colors) represent lexical learning, all supported in meaning by extralinguistic devices. Likewise in grammar we see interrogative formation, adjective-noun combinations, pronouns (subject, possessive, object), and formation of negatives which are presented with the aid of both linguistic and extralinguistic devices. To be sure, this listening content is recognition learning, or as Krashen calls it, getting a "feel" for the language (1982). But it forms a solid foundation for learning to listen and understand when an abundance of linguistic and extralinguistic supports are later reduced to more natural use.

What about other content? Where is the teacher to get the materials to present 10, 20, or 30 minutes of sustained listening every day? Hopefully, materials in many languages will be forthcoming, but until they are, teachers must design their own for use apart from the textbook (e.g., the first several days of the semester) and/or for use in supplementing the textbook. For the former, a base topic can be identified. It can then be extended to associated sub-topics. For example, *The Wallet* can be extended to *The Purse*, from which many female students will take their wallets. This in turn will produce a myriad of objects to talk about in different ways. A comb will suggest talk about *hair* in which color, length, consistency (i.e., straight or curly) and a number of motor actions related to it will follow.

Likewise material can be constructed to tie in with the textbook by building comprehensible input around the vocabulary of a given lesson. Responding to a teacher's request for specifics, I opened her Spanish textbook and called attention to the first three words appearing in the vocabulary section of the day's lesson: *ball, record player* and *magazine*. *Ball* might be talked about in terms of its color, form, material, and quality as well as its utility for throwing, catching, bouncing, rolling and the like. *Record player* provides input on its component parts, motor-related actions (e.g., plugging in, playing) and

its utility for dancing, including such activity as swaying, arm and leg manipulation and directional movements. The word magazine promises great potential for talk about its title, cover and content, the latter including description of articles, advertisements, and pictures, any of which can lead to even other associations. Such talk is pertinent as it provides contexts in which one would normally talk in using the new vocabulary.

Finally, a word about the appropriateness of the NL. If teachers are to develop an atmosphere for FL talk, including student talk, it seems reasonable that they establish a time for its exclusive use, followed by a time for exclusive use of the NL. Such an approach gives students security and a sense of direction. Otherwise, seeing no sustained example from the teacher, students may feel no compulsion to speak in the FL themselves.

We have already seen how the FL is handled exclusively by the teacher through large amounts of comprehensible input. Planned input of this nature then can be reinforced by spontaneous communicative talk to the students in the form of varied and sundry comments, directions, requests, congratulating, and the like. The NL, on the other hand, must be severely curtailed but at the same time signaled for use at a set time, the length of which to depend upon the nature of the lesson. Ten minutes, perhaps at the end of the hour, may suffice for questions and answers in the NL on language peculiarities which are causing students difficulties.

In summary, we have seen a rationale for massive use of the FL together with some notions on its implementation in the classroom. It is a concept which has the potential for revolutionizing FL instruction today. It behooves teachers to ponder it, to experiment with it, and to assess its value for developing proficiency in the oral language.

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